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M,DCCC,XIII.

With an APPENDIX.

"Let the consequences of TRUTH reach as far as they can: the farther they reach,
the better." MIDDLETON.

VOLUME LXXI.



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TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c., of the Publications reviewed in this Volume.

N. B. For REMARKABLE PASSAGES in the *Criticisms* and *Extracts*, see the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

☞ For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c., of which Accounts are given in the Review,—see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

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 199. l. 27. for 'find' r. *discern*.
 218. l. 22. for 'observation,' r. *observations*.
 251. l. 12. for 'thedolite,' r. *thedolite*.
 216. l. 9. for 'John,' r. *James*.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For M A Y, 1813.

ART. I. *An Account of Ireland, statistical and political.* By Edward Wakefield. 2 Vols. 4to. pp. 1600. 6l. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

ALTHOUGH the present is, we believe, the first time of Mr. Wakefield's appearance as an author, his name has been familiar to us during several years. On the examination of witnesses before a committee of the House of Commons in 1808, on the question of the sugar-distillery, he came forwards, with other agriculturists, on the part of the barley-growers. His evidence was given (Minutes of the Committee, pp. 109, 110, 111, 112, 113.) with clearness and impartiality: but we are inclined to think that his conclusions might have been in a considerable degree different, if he had carried his researches farther into the subject. Had he been fully apprized of the unfavourable effect on the revenue, of taxing rum higher than corn-spirit, he would probably have participated in the sentiments which we have formerly expressed, (M. R. Vol. lxiv. p. 311.) and would not have hesitated to acknowledge the justice and policy of a free competition. — Another occasion, on which Mr. Wakefield's opinion came under our observation, was the perusal of the evidence given in 1810 before the Bullion-committee, to whom he delivered (Minutes, p. 134.) a circumstantial account of the state of the currency in the sister-island. He had at that time resided nearly two years in Ireland, occupied in collecting materials for the present work; and following, in some degree, the example of his brother agriculturist, Mr. Arthur Young, whose tour in Ireland excited, thirty years ago, a considerable share of public attention. To a gentleman who had been in the habit, like Mr. Wakefield, of valuing and managing land, the inspection of a country, in which so much remains to be done by the introduction of improved husbandry, was an object of primary interest; and to this powerful motive was added the predilection inspired by the circumstance (Introduction, p. 10.) of Ireland being the native soil of some of his nearest connections. These consi-

derations led to his undertaking an examination of the state of the country; and the want of a full and comprehensive work on the subject was the motive for communicating the result of his labours to the public.

Ponderous as are many of the volumes through which we are doomed to travel, we have seldom met with a production of more formidable appearance than the present. The subjects discussed are, in course, many and various. They may be briefly enumerated under the following heads: Vol. I. Climate, Soil, Rural Economy, Rivers, Canals, Roads, Harbours, Manufactures. — Vol. II. Foreign Commerce, Fisheries, Paper-Currency, Revenue, Local Government; State of Education and Religion; Population; with observations, at great length, on what many readers may deem the most entertaining part of the whole, National Manners.

To literary fame, Mr. W. expressly declines any pretensions: but a rigid critic will be apt to doubt his sincerity, and to construe the extraordinary superabundance of quotations from various languages into an indirect call on his readers for a title to the character of extensive erudition. In another point, Mr. W.'s candour will be less distrusted. We allude to the passage (Introduction, p. 2.) in which he represents his work rather as a store-house of materials than as an arranged and digested composition. His friends, he says, were urgent for its early production; a feeling which, whether it exists in an author or in those who have influence over him, seldom fails to leave behind it a subject of serious regret. An expectation of change, in certain points, of the situation of Ireland, seems likewise to have accelerated the publication of his Account. In our opinion, however, neither the importunity of friends, nor the anticipation of change of political circumstances, constitutes an adequate reason for pressing forwards the appearance of a book which is intended for permanent use. That Mr. W. would greatly have gained by a more careful condensation of his materials will appear from our subsequent remarks: at present, we postpone all observations on the general character of his performance till our readers are made acquainted with several of its particular features. This acquaintance will be facilitated by exhibiting an abstract, or analysis, of the observations on several of the topics which are most interesting to a reader on this side of St. George's Channel. To this task, therefore, we proceed; premising that, whatever predilection Mr. W.'s family-connections may have given him for Irish individuals, it has left him thoroughly impartial in that general description of national character which belongs to the province of an author. He is very far from being a flatterer; and he

sets

sets out with declaring that 'those are the best friends of mankind, who are bold enough to point out their errors.' We question, however, whether the majority of his Irish readers will thank him for being so explicit in his communications; and they may be inclined to think that the patriotic object of improving Ireland might have been promoted without so literal an exposition of the "nakedness of the land."

Family Influence.—That aristocratical influence, which in this country is so much subdivided, is in Ireland compressed in a great measure into three powerful families; those of Beresford, Ponsonby, and Foster. Of the first, the Marquis of Waterford is, if not the political leader, the head in point of rank and fortune; and our Portuguese commander, Marshal Beresford, is one of his near relations. In consequence of a long co-operation with government, it is computed that not less than one-fourth part of the places, civil and ecclesiastical, in Ireland, is filled by the dependents or connections of this family. In politics, they have generally been opposed to the Ponsonbys, having been advocates of the Union, but having taken no part in the Catholic-question. Such is the affability of their manners, contrasted with the reserve of their antagonists, that it has become a common saying in Ireland, that "a Beresford pays more attention to an enemy than a Ponsonby to a friend."

Of the latter family, Mr. George Ponsonby, the opposition-leader in Parliament, is the political chief. This gentleman's abilities are fully acknowledged among ourselves; and the Irish, who have known him longer, while they do equal justice to his talents, are warm admirers of the rectitude of his heart. The family-title and rank are enjoyed by this gentleman's nephew, Lord Ponsonby, the brother-in-law of Lord Grey. The Ponsonbys are related likewise to Earl Fitz-William, and have long been on terms of attachment with the Devonshire family. They joined with the Fosters in opposing the Union; and they have of late become, as is well known, zealous advocates of the Catholic-question. The shyness or reserve of manner, which is common among them, has been considered as supercilious, when a more accurate observation would have resolved it into a notion, perhaps somewhat refined, of the behaviour which is incumbent on an independent gentleman.

Mr. John Foster, Speaker (before the Union) of the Irish House of Commons, and lately Chancellor of the Irish Exchequer, is the head of the family of that name. He has long been remarked for his attention to the study of the statistics of Ireland; and his ardour in that respect was probably the chief cause of his taking office in 1804 under Mr. Pitt. A decided

boldness in following his own judgment, in opposition to the strongest impulse of public opinion, has been the cause of his recent loss of popularity and consequent retirement from office. Like the two other parties, the Fosters have many connections in the occupancy of official situations in Ireland. Mr. Grattan, without being directly allied to any of these families, supported the Fosters and Ponsonbys in the question of union, against government and the Beresfords. In his general politics, the chief difference between him and Mr. Fox consisted in his approving and supporting the war with France.

Familiar as are the names of these political leaders to the inhabitants of towns in Ireland, a traveller may visit the peasantry far and wide without discovering any tokens of knowledge or interest in such matters: (Vol. II. p. 392.)

‘In the course of my journeys,’ says Mr. Wakefield, ‘I frequently inquired of the people whether they ever heard of such men as Pitt, Fox, Ponsonby, Foster, &c.; and I was astonished to find, notwithstanding the intelligence and acuteness which they display in the common affairs of life, that many of them were unacquainted even with their names. The name of Cromwell, however, seemed to be very familiar to them, as the great object of their hatred; and such of them, but the number was very small, as had any idea of modern statesmen, appeared to be no less rancorous against Mr. Pitt, never pronouncing his name without the strongest marks of indignation. They spoke of Bonaparté, but never in terms of detestation: if they ever uttered any thing severe against him, it was on account of his treatment of the Pope. — But notwithstanding that the people of Ireland do not enter into the minutiae of politics, and seem little interested in the downfall of one minister, or the elevation of another, nor appear to be anxious about the fluctuations of party, many of them have very correct ideas of the general state of the country, which they acquire by that spirit of inquisitiveness so peculiar in their character. In the wilds of Connaught, many, although entirely ignorant of political parties, were unanimous in their hatred to the government of the Castle; which, whatever form it may assume, or whoever may direct its measures, is considered as the focus of oppression — a place where they apprehend every ray of power is concentrated to keep them in a state of slavish subjection; and this opinion, handed down from father to son as a legacy, acquires new strength in every succeeding generation.

‘Although these classes pay little attention to political parties, they are always ready to form private *factions*, or associations; like the inhabitants of savage countries, where the government is weak, and the people barbarous. These coalitions are always for the redress, either of private wrongs, or public grievances, but without any permanent object, or with any intention of overturning the government. Such associations have a great resemblance to those of feudal times, but with this difference, that the latter were always headed by some chief, or leader, who often restrained their impetuosity, and moderated

moderated their fury ; those now in Ireland are, for the most part, tumultuous meetings, where the people act without concert, are irregular in their movements, and frequently undecided in action.'

The impartiality shewn by Mr. W. in speaking of political leaders was necessary to correct a notion rather current in Ireland, where every thing is ascribed to party-spirit, that the present work was intended to recommend the views of Mr. Foster. It is true, (Introduction, p. 5.) that Mr. Foster approved of its plan, and was active in procuring information for the author : but similar obligations are acknowledged to those who are well known to differ from him in views of Irish policy. In fact, the approbation of the act of Union, and of the Catholic claims, (points which are uniformly supported throughout the book,) are directly at variance with Mr. Foster's creed. With regard to the former of these, Mr. W. takes credit for being superior to the temptation of that popularity which, in Ireland, is too often sought by declaiming against incorporation with Great Britain, and in favour of a separate legislature.

Finances, and State of the Paper-Currency.—In no respect is the difference in the management of business, in the two islands, more clearly evinced than in the collection of the revenue. In this country, the average expence of collecting is only five per cent. ; while in Ireland (Vol. ii. p. 272.) it is regularly double, and sometimes triple, that amount. Another highly unpleasant circumstance in Irish finance is the disproportion in the progressive increase of debt and revenue ; the latter, notwithstanding all the additional taxes, having failed to keep pace with the former. The amount of the Irish debt, computing it, as it should always be computed, by a reduction to the ordinary money of account, is at present about fifty-five millions sterling. By adopting this mode of reckoning, we avoid the endless perplexities that are attendant on the various descriptions of stock. The public debt of England changes its amount remarkably in the mouths of different speakers ; being represented by some at five hundred, by others at six hundred, and by a third party at seven hundred millions. Now by reducing our stocks to the sterling money of private transactions, we are freed from these embarrassing differences, and find that the amount of our unredeemed national debt is about four hundred and seventy millions. As to Ireland, it was acknowledged in Parliament at the opening of the session in January 1811, that the revenue had suffered by the distress of trade. It had decreased (Vol. ii. p. 272.) about 800,000*l.* ; a new proof, if any were wanting, of the ruinous tendency of our Orders in Council. Were the trade of Ireland in a flourishing condition, her taxes under the present system would yield nearly five millions sterling.

With regard to paper-currency, the condition of Ireland is considerably worse than that of England. The over-issue, which in this country has taken place gradually and moderately, has in Ireland proceeded since the suspension of cash-payments with a highly pernicious rapidity. It is common for the less respectable of the Irish bankers to pay to brokers, and others, a premium for putting their notes into circulation; an expedient by which, *in the long run*, almost any house must be reduced to a suspension of payment. Various considerations concur to shew that such must be the result; the expence is too great for the profits of any new bank; and the anxiety to extend circulation by such means leads to the ruinous practice of making advances on doubtful security. The truth of this negative and ungracious reasoning is but too fully evinced by the repeated failures of Irish banks; for wherever we look, we observe among them a proportion of bankruptcies equal, perhaps superior, to any that has taken place among ourselves during the last three unfortunate years. Of the Dublin banking-houses, the two greatest, those of Latouche and Newcomen, are conducted on the plan of the London bankers, and issue no notes.—As to the amount of paper in circulation, only that of the Bank of Ireland is matter of publicity. In 1810, it averaged about 3,200,000*l*. The term of the bills discounted seldom exceeds two months; and the rate of dividend on their bank-stock is $7\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. per annum, with an occasional *bonus*. The legal rate of discount in Ireland is 6 per cent.

Another evil, not less serious than over-issue of paper, is a circulation of forged notes, to an extent of which, in this country, we can have no adequate idea. Parties of swindlers attend the fairs for the purpose of duping the country-people; and, as a prosecution, if it takes place, is seldom directed farther than to the compensation of the person defrauded, the offender apprehends little more than the obligation to give a good note for a bad one. So ingenious are some of these counterfeiters, that the deception can scarcely be discovered by any but a banker.

Poverty of the Irish Peasantry. — The abject and uneducated state of the majority of the lower orders affords but too much room for practising such deceptions as we have just mentioned. It is melancholy that so numerous a body of our fellow-subjects should remain strangers to the enjoyment of comfort, and to the blessing of habits of industry. In looking to their clothing, if it be fit to give the name of clothing to that which barely suffices to cover them, we find that it generally consists of a coarse woollen frieze manufactured by themselves. Most other articles of wearing apparel are, in like manner, home-made; because, however imperfect may be their workmanship, they must be satisfied-

satisfied with it, as they have not the means of making purchases. Though the pressure of poverty is almost universal among the Irish peasantry, the most distressing examples are found in the province of Connaught: (Vol. ii. p. 757.)

‘The poor who hold farms in partnership rank no higher than the herd of the grazier, who has frequently two or three acres of land, keeps a few cows or sheep, and very often receives no other wages than the maintenance of these animals. These people send their sons to school, but complain that they cannot afford the same advantage to their daughters. This may account for the women in many districts not understanding a word of English. — The mountain-tenants, a still poorer class, reside in the most wretched huts, and are the “*spalpeens*,” who, in summer, travel into Leinster in search of work, while the wife and children wander about begging, and soliciting charity “for the honour of God.” Groups of these poor creatures may be seen during the summer-months, from one shore to the other, perambulating the country in want and misery. One of the children carries a tin kettle; others, if stout enough, have a bundle of bed clothes on their backs, and the mother is frequently loaded with an infant, that peeps over her shoulders out of a blanket in which it is suspended.’ —

‘On the western side of the Shannon, the appearance of the people, their dress, the form of their cottages, and even the Irish language which they speak, are different from what they are in Leinster or Munster, or in any other part of Ireland. The inhabitants of this side of the river treat those on the other side with the utmost contempt. A common term of reproach with them is, “he is a Connaught man,” and I have heard the people of Dublin, when a gentleman’s carriage was passing, drawn by horses of different colours, badly matched, and as an ill-built vehicle always does, rattle in a peculiar manner, exclaim with a contemptuous sneer, “there goes a Connaught.”’

‘Labour here is lower than in other parts of Ireland, and the people in consequence of the nature of their leases live in a state which approaches almost to slavery. Little money is to be seen in circulation; every payment is made by conveniences; but still, as much wretchedness and poverty is to be found in Dublin and within thirty miles of it, as in any part of Connaught. In this province, and the case is the same in many parts of Ireland, labourers are never employed without a person to overlook and attend them. They generally work in companies; but half the time is wasted in *gossiping* either with the overseers, or among themselves. In the course of my tour, I observed many instances of this idle habit, and was much amused with their conversations. I have seen gangs of young women employed in hay-making or in gathering potatoes, indulge in the same propensity, joking and laughing with the overseer the whole day.

‘An inclination to theft and pilfering is still remarked among the indigent Irish.’ —

‘During the two seasons I attended the fair at Ballinasloe, I perceived a great anxiety in the inhabitants of Connaught to retaliate

for the contempt with which they are treated by the people in other provinces. I had an opportunity of observing many scenes that are not to be met with in any other part of the British empire, and which make a singular impression on a stranger. When the Bishop of Kilmore entered the fair, he was saluted by a loud and general howl, which resembled more the war-whoop of savages, than a complimentary acclamation. It seemed, however, to be highly gratifying to the multitude, and to produce a smile of satisfaction on the faces of the Galway buckeens.'—

'Following the banks of the Shannon, the country to the north of Limerick has a few resident proprietors, but is not remarkably populous. The poorer classes, particularly in the neighbourhood of Bruff, where I passed in November 1808, are an active race, who go half naked, live in miserable mud cabins, and are, no doubt, hardy. It is impossible to find any country where the people are more confined to potatoes for food, than the inhabitants of this district.'—

'*County of Kerry.*—On leaving Tarbert, I lost every trace of resident gentry, and travelled to Kerry-head, passing through a country, the inhabitants of which I was told were all "White Boys." I do not know what title they gave themselves, nor is it of much importance; but I spent two nights among them, and experienced as sincere hospitality, and found as much personal safety under their roof, as I ever did in the most civilized parts of England. Their cabins are built of stone without cement, and the doors are of wicker-work. In every respect, they had a wretched appearance. Turf was so scarce that they were glad to use any thing for fuel; and when they lighted a fire, they endeavoured to increase the warmth by confining the smoke within the walls of their huts. I was advised not to enter into so disturbed a district, but as I was conscious that no act of mine deserved their resentment, I entertained no fear; I neither carried pistols, nor was dressed in uniform; I conversed freely with every one I met; kept company with many of the poorer orders on the road; and by the time I reached Kerry-head, had many attendants to shew me the Atlantic. I found them a quick, inquisitive people, superstitious, querulous, and of an idle disposition. The principal objects of their complaint were proctors' tithes, middlemen, and bad landlords.'—

'In this part of the country, weddings, among the opulent, and even those among the poorest people, are attended with considerable expence. The usual seasons for marrying are a month before Lent, and a month before Christmas, which they call "before Advent." The dowry generally consists of some cows; and the lady's being disposed of to advantage, depends on the number of these animals which the father is able to bestow. The father of the young man divides his holding with his son; and, in making the bargain, the chief object on one side is to obtain the largest quantity of land, and on the other, the greatest number of cows. When the preliminaries have been settled, as early a day as possible is fixed for the marriage. On that occasion the whole neighbourhood are invited, or rather invite themselves; for as it is customary to pay for their entertainment, every

every one who comes is welcome. The expence to a visitor is about 6s. 6d. Of this sum, 2s. 2d. is given to the priest ; 1s. 1d. goes to his coadjutor ; the same to the musician, who enlivens the company with the melodious strains of his bag-pipe, and a like sum to the cook, who superintends the preparation of the entertainment. The dinner consists of "every delicacy" that the adjacent district can supply ; and, as those who partake of it are numerous, a whole sheep, with pigs, turkeys, geese, and fowls, are dressed in the surrounding houses. Ten or fifteen gallons of punch are made, of which the company, both men and women, liberally partake, and the merry dance is kept up with great spirit during the greater part of the night.'

Rural Economy.—If those persons, whose ideas of agriculture are formed on the practice of our improved counties, feel disappointed at the backwardness of many parts of the south and west of England, how much greater would be their mortification on witnessing the miserable system pursued in Ireland ! There, it is still an universal practice to thresh on the bare ground ; and the method, plain as it is, of giving land rest, in the early part of the course, by means of clover, is hitherto very little known. The Irish farmer possesses neither capital nor any conception of the method of laying out money for an ultimate return ; all his object is a paltry profit at the present moment. With equal blindness, the landholder thinks of nothing but an increase of rent, and pays very little attention to the comparative industry and responsibility of the applicants for his land. Several years of experience must still pass over, before the majority of the Irish landlords are convinced that the amount of the money-bargain is but one part of the business ; and that the ability to cultivate land without impoverishing it is of more importance than the payment, for a few years, of a delusive increase of rent. A great extension of tillage has, during the present age, taken place in Ireland : but it has in general been extension without improvement. Increase of population leads to the cultivation of more ground, but the mode pursued continues nearly as backward as ever. The use of the spade instead of the plough, or, to speak generally, a waste of manual labour in lieu of the shorter process of machinery, continues the mark of a thick but poor population. While, in Great Britain, the size of farms is progressively augmenting, and employment is found for the growth of the population by multiplying the improvements of agriculture,—in Ireland, the chief resource for rising numbers consists in a division and subdivision of the paternal occupancy. Cottage is added to cottage by each successive generation : but the potatoe, cultivated by the hand, is still almost the only source of support and employment. The consequence is indeed an increase of rent to the

the landlord, but no increase of property or of comfort to his humble lessee. Wheat is very little known in Ireland, and oats are never used by the inhabitants as food: like barley, they are raised chiefly for the purpose of distillation.

Rents in Ireland are generally accounted high in comparison with those of England; a notion which arises chiefly from inattention to the greater size of the acre, to the smaller value of Irish currency, and to the exemption of the land from poor-rates. The fashionable plan of encouraging Irish agriculture by bounties has been, as we observed in our report of Mr. Newenham's work, (M. R. Vol. lxxviii. p. 197.) greatly overvalued. An open market is all that Ireland wants, and all that it is good for her to have. The true bounty is to employ every advisable expedient for stimulating the industry and extending the views of the Irish farmer; a slow and we fear a difficult process, but one of which the prospect is greatly, though indirectly, favoured by the expected abolition of religious disabilities, as well as by the diffusion, already commenced, of the blessings of education.

In endeavouring to ascertain Mr. W.'s views respecting the principles of the corn-trade, we find ourselves somewhat perplexed by that loose style which forms a considerable blemish in his book. In one passage, (Vol. i. p. 585.) he advocates a bounty on the export of corn; while, in another, (p. 601.) he regrets the existence of our corn-laws, and is desirous of considering them as, what they certainly are not, a defence against bounties on importation. In addition to this fallacy, he appears to discourage the importation of all foreign corn, and declares, (p. 602.) with all imaginable composure, that nothing but a *high steady price* will answer the farmer's purpose. He appears to forget that a rise in the money-price of corn is, in a great measure, a delusion, and obliges both landlord and tenant to make a proportional increase in their expences. We are better pleased with him in another passage, where, comparing the condition of French and Irish farmers, he traces their poverty to the same cause, viz. the almost total want of capital. In France are many poor farmers, called *metayers*, who are unable to contribute any thing towards working a farm beyond their personal labour, and a few implements. The live-stock, such as it is, is provided by the landlord; and an agreement is made to share the farming returns in equal proportions: a plan indicative of a very rude state of agriculture, and by which the fine climate and soil of France are so inadequately seconded that they produce scarcely eighteen bushels of wheat, on an average, per acre.

The miserable effects of want of capital in Ireland will become apparent, on considering the large sum that is required in
this

this country to do justice to a farm. It is computed, on an average, that a farmer should not set himself down without a capital, in stock and money, of 10l. per acre. It ought to be equal to the payment of the following items: 1st, a year's rent; 2d. a year's labour; 3d. seed-corn; 4th. implements; 5th. horses; 6th. cows. Now in Ireland no rent is paid till the first crop is threshed out; as to labour, all must be done by the family, because they can seldom afford to pay for assistance; and as to seed-corn, it is frequently obtained on credit from mercantile dealers, and sometimes bought with money borrowed at the exorbitant interest of *five per cent. per month*. Next, as to their implements, these are so few and so indifferent as to amount to a mere trifle; the horses merit no better description; and the cows have, in general, been reared on the premises of a landlord on the footing of what is called a "convenience," a method to which we shall advert presently. Thus the Irish farmer begins his career in want, and continues it in poverty. If his family be industrious, he may sometimes save a little money, which he never thinks of expending in the improvement of his ground, but hoards or keeps buried in the earth until the marriage of a daughter, or some other family-call, obliges him to encroach on his slender stock.

The old plan of discharging public burdens by labour, instead of money, still continues in practice in Ireland. It is thus that the farmer acquits himself of the county-cess, and, which is much more pernicious in its consequences, performs various services to his landlord at an inferior rate of wages, or for indirect accommodations in the shape of an allowance of cow's grass, oat and flax-land, potatoe-ground, &c. These and other irregular modes of reimbursement constitute what is currently termed "payment by convenience." However natural this plan of balancing an account may appear, it engenders habits very different from those which are produced by regular payments in money. The true way of stimulating industry in a backward country, or of keeping it up in an advanced state, is to hold forth a definite payment for a definite service. Hence the practice, which has become so common among ourselves, of paying all classes of workmen, whether manufacturers, tradesmen, or labourers, by the piece. No where is the contrast between the two modes more strikingly exemplified than in Ireland: (Vol. i. p. 515.)

"As to the conveniences," says an Irish country-gentleman resident in Tipperary, "the peasants get them from their employers. I am sure twenty-pence per day would be cheaper to the farmer, or gentleman, to pay them, for no one who lives out of this county can believe the loss they occasion by their trespass of cattle, fowl, and pigs, both wilful and by neglect. I am now rearing (1st of May, 1811,)

1811,) barley in potatoe ground; I let some to my workmen at eight pounds an acre last year, which I mean to let out with grass-seeds, and this day I am in a war with them to remove their potatoes out of the holes, which, although growing in a mat, it is with difficulty, and by force, I can get them to remove. I have offered them horses three months to remove them; this may give you some idea of their manners; all along the fields they have made gaps through a new quick hedge, sooner than pass a little round by the gate, and although I have been twenty-five years among them, I know no means of managing them, neither will they lead or drive, nor do I expect to see them in a better situation." —

Now for the reverse of the picture, from Mr. Wakefield's own observations: (p. 512.)

' When at Mr. Stewart's, at the Ards, in Donegal, I found that he paid his labourers in money every Saturday night. He was the only man in the county, perhaps, who thought of it, and the difference which it produced was undoubtedly striking. I was there in company with Sir William Rowley, his son, and his brother, the Rev. Joshua Rowley; and I remember we were all filled with astonishment long before we got within the walls of his domain, at the appearance of every thing around us; being unable to discover what magical power could effect so speedy, and so uncommon a difference as we observed not only in the looks of the people, but in their habitations, and whatever else belonged to them. We, however, soon found that the SPELL WAS READY MONEY, and REGULAR WEEKLY PAYMENTS.

' I shall now proceed to the opposite side of the kingdom, to the residence of the Rev. Dr. Dudley, at Killown, in the county of Wexford, where this gentleman may be considered as a new settler on the living to which he was presented; but different from a country squire, with his "army of freeholders." I found Dr. Dudley at Killown, employed in the same manner as I had often seen him at Bradwell, in Essex; giving work to the poor, and encouraging their honest industry. His little farm had the appearance of an ant-hill: payments were made every week in money; people came to work for him from a great distance, in every direction. He took me out to see his workmen, and I shall not easily forget an expression he made use of on that occasion; it deserves to be recorded, and may afford a useful lesson to those who are too apt to judge from prejudice: "Wakefield, look at these poor fellows, and honestly acknowledge that an Irishman can work; but bear this in mind, that he is paid every Saturday night."

Leases.—The tenure of land in Ireland is often different from that of this country. It is common to read, in the Irish papers, advertisements to let land on lease "for ever." This practice originates from the circumstance of many Irish estates being held by grants from the crown on the payment of a quit-rent, a consequence of the confiscations attendant on the unfortunate insurrections of former ages; and the lessee of land "for ever" is substantially in the same situation as a proprietor,

since he possesses unbounded power over the soil. As to leases of limited durations, the length of term is various. They may be classed as follows :

61 years with lives.	21 years with lives.
31 years with ditto.	21 years.
31 years.	

Covenants for a course of husbandry are scarcely known in Irish leases, the *quantum* of rent being the grand object of attention. The clauses sometimes inserted for the repair of buildings are generally a mere form, and are considered as such when a case happens to be brought into court, for the plain reason that the buildings are seldom worth repair. Parliamentary influence is much considered, every proprietor having, it may be said, "an army of freeholders." This, however, is very far from leading to an assurance of preference to the occupant at the expiration of the lease; a small addition in a stranger's offer sufficing to produce a transfer of possession. This want of confidence between landlord and tenant is calculated to engender the worst consequences; and, taken with the erroneous system of leases on lives, it may be considered as the main cause of the prevalent habit of over-cropping. It was in vain that Mr. Wakefield argued with Irish tenants that it was not their interest to run so many crops: the constant answer was, "I hold the land only during such a person's life; he is advanced in years, and who knows how soon he may drop?" "But you will get a renewal?" "I can't tell that." "But it is most probable there can be no wish to change the tenant?" "A high rent will be bid for the land if it be in *heart*."

In the south of Ireland, it was formerly the custom for gentlemen of landed property to hold, in their own management, large tracks of land, under the grazing system: but this mode has now fallen into disuse, the proprietors finding it advisable to retain only a moderate domain; and letting out the remainder on lease. As to the general question of the length of leases, Mr. Wakefield is inclined to think that, in England, twenty-one years form a suitable term: but in Ireland, where the labour of a lifetime seems necessary to bring the land into tolerable condition, he is of opinion that leases ought to be for thirty-one years, or more. He has attempted an estimate of the average rent of land throughout Ireland; a computation necessarily vague, but not wholly uninteresting. The result is about 11. 7s. for the Irish acre, equivalent to near 17s. on our measure. — He is by no means disposed to join in the common outcry against middle-men; and he observes that a material distinction is to be made between the property which is in a condition

condition to be let at once to the ordinary tenants of a country, and that which, in order to be rendered productive, requites the aid of a wealthy intermediate occupant. Neither does he coincide in the common declamation against absentees, since it often happens that the property of these gentlemen is not the worse managed for their being out of the country: but he acknowledges that several landholders are in the habit of making a short annual trip to Ireland, to have a pretext for calling themselves residents, and for evading the payment of the income-tax. The total of absentee-rental he computes at between two and three millions.

If Mr. Wakefield be indulgent to middle-men, he is by no means sparing with regard to agents or land-stewards. Many of the Irish gentlemen are unfortunately so improvident as to be in debt to their agents, which, in other words, is putting themselves in their power; and the consequence is that the agent practises corruption without either fear or shame. On receiving a farmer's offer for a lease, it is not unusual for some of these modest persons to ask in direct terms, "And how much do you propose to give to myself?" and it is quite common for tenants to pay money to the wife and daughters of the agent, or to whomsoever they deem likely to have influence with him. (I. 299.)

' While in Kildare, during the spring of the year 1809, a gentleman with whom I am in habits of intimacy, and on whose strict veracity I can place full reliance, communicated to me the following circumstance, which, had it been a solitary instance, I should have suppressed; but, as a hundred of the same kind might be produced, it ought to be made known.

' My friend being about to go to England, was desired by one of his neighbours to wait upon a gentleman in London, to request the renewal of the lease of a farm. The gentleman received him with much politeness; and, after some conversation on the business, referred him to the agent who resided on the estate. On application to the agent, he immediately said, "You must give so much per annum as the rent, and it will be necessary, likewise, that you should make me a present of 500*l*.—I have been offered 300*l*. already." As a companion to the above, I shall relate a circumstance nearly of the same kind. The late Duke of Leinster, upon the appointment of a new agent for his estate, borrowed of him 20,000*l*. The agent, who was a man of character, being desirous to have it understood whether or not he was to follow the usual custom, and to receive presents from the tenants, asked his employer in what manner he should act. His Grace replied, "Get all you can."

' Many agents have sons, or other relations, settled as shopkeepers on some part of the estate to which they belong, and a tenant, unless he chooses to run the risk of incurring the displeasure of these harpies, cannot purchase a yard of tape or a pound of cheese in any other

other place. Nay, I have known agents, when they had no relations to provide for in this manner, dispose of a shop to a stranger, and exact from him a per-centage on all his profits.'—

'One estate in the north, which came under my observation, yielded to the English landlord 8000*l.* per annum, and to the agent 2000*l.* independently of the patronage which the latter obtained, to the benefit of his family and dependants. I know another instance, where the leases of an estate of 10,000*l.* per annum being expired, the agent, on the renewal, exacted a year's rent from each tenant, by way of "*lease-money*," and thus put at once into his pocket 10,000*l.*'—

'I do not, however, wish to be supposed, that I mean to include in one general character all those agents who are intrusted with the management of estates in Ireland. I know that in that country there are many most respectable agents; honourable men, who would as little take a bribe from the hands of a tenant, as they would pilfer a guinea from a banker's drawer. I observed less of that meanness among the non-resident agents, than among those who live in the mansion of an absentee.'

Bogs.—Ireland possesses no great diversity of soil. Chalk is unknown; clays, where they occur, are less stiff than in this country; and the greater part of the island abounds with lime-stone, or calcareous gravel. Luxuriant herbage is often found to spring from a calcareous sub-soil of little depth. This is usual in the counties of Roscommon, Galway, Clare, and other quarters: but the richest grounds are to be found in the county of Meath. The districts called the *Caucasses* lie along the banks of the Fergus and Shannon, and, though they present the appearance of marsh, are of such extraordinary fertility as never to be injured by depth of ploughing. The lime-stone-gravel, so common in Ireland, may be always made conducive to the improvement of the ground. The counties of Tipperary and Limerick, Longford and Cork, abound in fertile spots; yet, rich as Ireland is, Mr. Wakefield is scarcely disposed to allow that, acre for acre, her soil is superior to that of England. Assertions to that effect, he thinks, would be less positively urged, were travellers to take into account the rich lands of Cambridgeshire, Lincolnshire, the south of Yorkshire, and the north of Nottinghamshire. In such comprehensive calculations, it is necessary to make a material deduction for the extent of surface lost in bogs. These bogs are not, as we are apt to imagine, similar to the marshy fens in our eastern counties, the value of which has, in the present age, been so wonderfully increased by draining: but a radical difference prevails in point of soil; that of our marshes being a 'black spongy moor of rotten vegetable matter,' while the bogs of Ireland consist of 'inert vegetable matter,' covered, more or less,

less, with unproductive vegetables, and containing a large quantity of stagnant water.. While the former is found capable, after having been drained, of producing unrivalled crops of grass and corn, the latter seems scarcely to throw out a single useful plant. The bogs of Ireland extend chiefly to the westward of Dublin, in a range which expands in breadth as it approaches the western ocean. This large track includes, among other bogs, those that are comprized under the collective name of the bog of Allen; which is by no means, as it is commonly supposed, one continued morass. A Board of Commissioners has for some years been employed in investigating the means of improving these unproductive levels, and recommended the system of large drains; an opinion with which Mr. Wakefield is not disposed to coincide. In this, as in other places, however, he has so incumbered his reasoning with prolix detail, that it is no easy matter to analyze the ground of his opinion. It is perfectly obvious that, if the springs which discharge water into bogs can be traced, and a drain be directly applied to them, the desired result will be successfully produced. We are aware, likewise, that, in several cases in which a bog has been reclaimed, the expence has been equal or more than equal to the market-price of prime land: but this excess of expenditure may, in our view of the matter, be more frequently ascribed to an imperfect knowledge of the proper course of improvement, than to any absolute impracticability, as some persons allege, of conducting such undertakings on a profitable plan.

Fuel.—A deficiency of fuel is one of the greatest drawbacks on the prospect of improvement in Ireland. It was truly remarked by that sagacious observer, Dr. Franklin, that, in a climate like ours, no circumstance affects so directly the comfort of the lower orders as the supply of fuel. The obvious reason is that the command of fuel enables them to prolong their hours of work; much of the domestic labour of poor women, such as spinning and knitting, as well as the manufactures performed by men, which give little exercise, being difficult of execution when the fingers are numbed with cold. In severe weather, therefore, these poor people go sooner to bed and rise later than they would if they could afford good fires or warm stoves. If we look around among ourselves, we shall find that abundance of fuel and increase of manufactures regularly go hand in hand. What else is the cause of the thick population of Birmingham, and of its neighbourhood; which, in the recent examination of witnesses before the House of Commons, on the subject of the Orders in Council, were represented

Wakefield's Account of Ireland.

presented to contain, within a moderate circumference, not fewer than 400,000 inhabitants?

Various coal-mines are found in Ireland, but the quality is either of an inferior nature, or, which more frequently happens, the difficulty of working is such as to give the coal no more than a partial or local sale. As it is thus much dearer than English coal, Ireland continues to be supplied by importation, particularly from Whitehaven. The chief coal-works are those of Castle-coomer near Kilkenny: but, comparatively large as they are, they raise only forty thousand tons annually, at an expence, it is said, of nearly 10s. per ton, which is double the cost at many of our collieries. The works of Arigna, in the county of Leitrim, described by Mr. Newenham (see *M. R.* Vol. lxvii. p. 359.) in such sanguine terms, are not, in Mr. Wakefield's opinion, likely to be more prosperous than the others. As to wood, it is so scarce throughout Ireland as very seldom to be used for fuel; and English coal finds its way not only to Belfast, Dublin, Cork, and other sea-ports, but into the interior towns, such as Carlow and Mullingar, through the medium of canals. Among the lower orders, the chief fuel is turf cut out of the bogs; and the cutting, drying, and carrying of this substance exhibit, in Ireland, as in Scotland, a scene almost as busy as harvest. Hence the poor are often in great alarm at the design of draining a bog, fearing that they may be deprived of their fuel; an apprehension, however, which is wholly without foundation, because, after it had been drained, the sub-stratum would become so compressed as to afford much better turf than before, and the peasantry would save a great part of the time which they lose in drying the turf. We extract the following passages from Mr. W.'s journal:

'Aug. 1st. Meath. Killeen.—Some parts of this county are very badly supplied with fuel. Each cabin requires at least twenty-five kishes for the consumption of one winter. Habit, and the want of grates, prevent any attempt being made to employ coals. One ton of coals is equal to fourteen kishes of turf, at 4s. 4d. each, and a ton of coals costs only 34s.'—

'Aug. 12th. Westmeath. Reynella.—Turf is sold here for one shilling per barrack kish. Coals, from Kilkenny, cost 3s. 6d. per cwt.'—

'Sept. 8th. Donegal. Ballyshannon.—Went into a cabin belonging to a widow woman, who takes in two lodgers; these lodgers join with her in purchasing fuel, of which they burn two horse-loads per week in summer, and three in winter. The expense in the former season is eight-pence each, and in the latter from thirteen-pence to eighteen-pence per week, making the whole annual expenditure for that article upwards of five pounds. Coals, at Ballyshannon, sell

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for a guinea and a half per ton. The family of a labourer in England can obtain fuel at a much cheaper rate, as a ton of coals will last them a year.

'Dec. 20th. Limérick. Grange.—Mr. Grady, and the Rev. Dr. Fitzgerald agree in opinion, that even at the bog side, turf costs each cabin 40s. per annum.'

It is apparent that, had our manufacturers, in opposing the Union, considered the obstacles to rivalry on the part of Ireland from a deficiency of fuel, they might have saved themselves much disquietude, and might have exempted Mr. Pitt from the necessity of introducing into that act conditions equally at variance with a liberal policy and with the wishes of the people of Ireland.

[To be continued.]

ART. II. *General Zoology, or Systematic Natural History.* By George Shaw, M.D., F.R.S., &c. With Plates from the first Authorities and most select Specimens. Engraved principally by Mrs. Griffith. Vol. VIII. Parts i. and ii. 8vo. pp. 570. 87 Plates. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Kearsley, &c. 1812.

IN making our report of each portion of this valuable work, we have no need to trouble our readers with general remarks on its nature and object, but may only congratulate them on its regular progress towards completion. We have now to state that, in the present volume, the estimable author discusses the remaining genera of the order *Pica*, or *Pies*; namely, *Buceros*, *Momota*, *Musophaga*, *Buphaga*, *Alcedo*, *Sitta*, *Todus*, *Upupa*, *Promerops*, *Merops*, *Certhia*, *Trochilus*, *Ramphastos*, *Scythrops*, *Crotophaga*, and *Psittacus*.

Buceros, or *Horn-bill*.—The birds of this family, which inhabit the warmer regions of Asia and Africa, seem in some measure to correspond to the *Toucans* of the new world, being distinguished by the great size of their beaks; which, in most of their species, are rendered still more extraordinary by a process, or appendage, on the upper mandible. As this latter characteristic does not exhibit its genuine form till the full growth of the bird, and as the males and females assume very different appearances, the precise determination of the species becomes a matter of considerable difficulty. The substance of their huge bills is not solid, but channelled; and their serratures are often apparently irregular, in consequence of the injury which they receive from seizing their prey with violence: but, according to Latham, the circumstance of their feeding on fish requires confirmation.

Of the twenty-five species, or varieties, particularized by Dr. Shaw, several are dispatched with somewhat provoking brevity; from the want, no doubt, of more ample and accurate intelligence relative to their distinctive characters and natural dispositions. On some occasions, however, the splendid labours of Levaillant on the rarer birds of India and America have contributed to fill up and to enliven the descriptions. An example of this kind occurs in the account of the remarkable species denominated *Buceros rhinoceros*, or *Rhinoceros horn-bill*:

The general size of the *Rhinoceros horn-bill* is that of a hen-turkey, but its shape is more slender in proportion: the neck is of moderate length, and the tail slightly cuneated; the colour of the whole bird is black, except the lower part of the abdomen and tip of the tail, which are white: the bill, which is enormous in proportion to the bird, measures about 10 inches in length, and is of a slightly curved shape, sharp-pointed, serrated in a somewhat irregular manner on the edges, and furnished at the base of the upper mandible with an extremely large process continued for a considerable space in a parallel direction with the bill, and then turned upwards in a contrary direction, or in the manner of a reverted horn: this process is divided into two portions by a longitudinal black line, the part above the line being of a bright red, the part below yellow, and the back part or rising base, next the head, black: the bill itself is of similar colour with the process, being black at the base, the remainder yellow, tinged with bright red towards the base: the legs are short, strong, and of a pale yellow colour. In the specimen described by M. Levaillant, the abdomen was entirely black; the tail, as in the above described specimen, tipped with white, and the whole plumage exhibited a slight bluish gloss when exposed to a strong light: the eyes were blackish; the eye-lashes long, black, and flattish. This bird was of a timid disposition, endeavouring to conceal itself from view, and of a dull and heavy appearance. It did not walk, but hopped along in the manner of a crow. The only appearance of liveliness which it exhibited was when its food was brought by the person who had the care of it: at such times it ran forwards with extended wings, opening its bill, and uttering a slight scream of joy. It was fed with biscuit steeped in water, flesh either raw or dressed, rice, pease, &c. M. Levaillant one day offered it some newly killed small birds which he had lately shot, and which it readily devoured entire, after bruising them for a considerable time in its bill. It was said also, during its voyage from India, to have always pursued rats and mice whenever it perceived them, though it never was nimble enough to catch one. Its monstrous bill, which at first appears so formidable a weapon, is by no means such in reality, and M. Levaillant assures us that he several times put his hand into the bill without feeling the slightest pain, though the bird exerted all its endeavours to wound it. M. Levaillant adds, that the Horn-bills in general are, in his opinion, naturally carnivorous, all those which

he observed in Africa feeding on serpents, lizards, insects, &c., and sometimes on carrion.'

The *Unicorn* species affords an article not less interesting than the preceding, the author having adopted Buffon's amusing recital, and subjoined some additional notices from Levaillant :

' The *Violaceous*, a native of Ceylon, was examined in a living state by Mons. Levaillant in a menagerie at the Cape of Good Hope, whither it had been brought by a Dutch vessel returning from India. It shewed a remarkable degree of docility and attachment towards its keeper, and was fed with meat, either raw or dressed, as well as with various kinds of vegetables. It also pursued and readily caught both rats and mice, which it swallowed entire, after having rubbed them in its bill. It was a general peace-maker in the menagerie, and whenever a quarrel arose among any of the other birds, it immediately ran to them, and by the strokes of its beak enforced a suspension of hostilities. It even kept the larger birds in awe, and Levaillant once saw it cause an ostrich to run away with all its speed, pursuing it half flying and half running. In short it became the formidable tyrant of the whole menagerie, which it imposed upon by the size of its enormous bill rather than by any genuine power, thus proving the general truth, that appearance alone often proves a successful substitute for reality.'

The introduction of the *Helmeted* or *galeated* Horn-bill into the British Museum is so far of importance, as it reveals the insufficiency of the conjectures which had been hazarded by Edwards and Levaillant; the latter of whom, having speculated on the bill and skull, inferred not only that the bird to which these parts belonged must be of a very different family from the horn-bills, but that he must be almost incapable of flight.

Dr. Shaw's history of the only known species of *Momot*, or *Momot*, viz. the *Brazilian*, is chiefly made up from the observations of Edwards and Latham.

Muscophaga violacea, or *Violet Plantain-eater*, is the same elegant bird which the author had already described in the *Museum Leverianum*, under the appellation of *Cuculus regius*; and its proper station cannot be very correctly assigned, until it be distinctly ascertained whether its feet are constructed for walking or for climbing. M. Isert, who, in the Berlin Transactions, describes a living specimen, represents them as *gressorial*: but it has been suggested that, like the Touraco-bird, it may possess the power of placing its toes in either position.

Of *Buphaga*, or *Ox-pecker*, we have only one known species, namely, the *Africana*, noticed both by Adanson and Levaillant.

It is about the size of a Lark, of a ferruginous brown above, paler beneath, with the tail-feathers somewhat pointed, and the bill straight, thickish, and gibbous towards the extremity. It alights on the hide of cattle, antelopes, and other quadrupeds, from which it picks the larvæ of gad-flies: but it likewise feeds on various other insects. It is a very shy bird, and is usually observed in small flocks, of six or eight individuals.

Though the numerous family denominated *Alcedo*, or *Kingfisher*, is found in each of the four quarters of the world, it chiefly affects warm and hot latitudes, only one species being indigenous to Europe. In most of them, brilliancy of plumage is more remarkable than elegance of form; and the predominant colours are blue, green, and orange. Notwithstanding the shortness of their wings, their flight, which is horizontal, is strong and uncommonly rapid: yet, in the midst of their most impetuous career, they can suddenly stop short, and remain motionless for many seconds. When seated on the branch of a tree, should a fish drop from their bill, they will instantly dart after it, and recover it before it can fall to the ground. They are observed to haunt rivers and the vicinity of waters, living on fish and aquatic insects, which they catch with singular art and dexterity; plunging down on their prey, seizing it crossways in their bill, and either swallowing it on the spot, or retiring to some resting-place, where they may devour it at leisure. Like birds of the accipitrine order, they have a capacious stomach, and possess the faculty of disgorging bones and other indigestible substances in the form of pellets. They lay from five to nine eggs, in cavities which they form in the banks of rivers, &c. Of forty species, here described, the common or European sort affords the most entertaining article, because it is most familiar to the observation of ornithologists.

The *Sitta*, or *Nut-hatches*, are, in their general manners, much allied to the Wood-peckers, chiefly frequenting trees, in the cavities of which they breed, and feeding on nuts, berries, insects, &c. Besides the single European species, of which the history is pleasingly enough detailed, (principally in the language of Mr. Pennant and Colonel Montague,) twelve others are here briefly characterized. The European, it might have been noted, has seldom occasion to quit the wooded districts of a country, even in winter; because, should its store of nuts and grain be exhausted, it can still have recourse to dormant insects, or their larvæ. The Norwegians, however, have observed that, previously to wet or stormy weather, it sometimes comes down from the inland parts to the coast. The male is very assiduous

duous in his attentions during the nursing of the young : but, when the latter are able to provide for themselves, the family breaks up, and each individual lives apart. Notwithstanding this solitary disposition, however, nut-hatches are often seen to associate with creepers, titmice, &c., and, in aviaries, they have been known to live on the most friendly terms with linnets, chaffinches, &c.

In the large species, (*Sitta major*), the form of the bill, which is thickish in the middle, and curved at the tip, seems to exclude it from the genus. The *Pusilla* is described principally from the defective representations of Catesby ; which, as far as we recollect, are corrected by Vieillot *, in his History of North American Birds.

The *Todies*, which are chiefly inhabitants of the warmer parts of America, are distinguished by a peculiar flatness of the bill, and may be discriminated from the Fly-catchers, to which they so nearly approximate, by having the outer and middle toes connected. In his scanty exposition of this tribe, Dr. Shaw has been principally guided by Latham and Pallas ; but more copiousness of detail might have been derived from Desmarest's Natural History of Tanagers, Todies, and Manakins ; a sumptuous publication, which we had occasion to notice some time ago. Fourteen species, however, are here enumerated and defined.

With regard to the *Variegated Tody* of Latham, *Todier Varié* of Buffon, &c., which has been conjured up from some vague and confused notions of the description and figure of *Ispida Indica*, by Aldrovandus, the present author observes, with his usual critical sagacity, that ' the bird intended was a species of *Certhia* or Creeper, and that Aldrovandus merely calls it a King-fisher in compliance with the title by which he received it. It has therefore nothing to do with the present genus, and can only serve as a remarkable instance of the carelessness with which works of this kind are frequently quoted. The Count de Buffon, or his coadjutor Montbeillard, observes that, as Aldrovandus is silent relative to the shape of the bill in this bird, he cannot pretend to determine whether it should be placed in this genus or not. Aldrovandus, however, expressly declares the bill to be longish, slender, and of a black colour ; and the figure, though rude, would, even at the present day, pass for a tolerable representation of some of the African and American *Certhiæ*.'

* This gentleman's name is uniformly written *Vieillot* by Dr. Shaw : but wherein has the *right* i offended, that it should be plucked out ?

The genus *Upupa* is far from numerous; including, in the present arrangement, only four species, of which the *Epops*, or Common Hoopoe, affords the most varied description. The remaining three are, the *Minor*, *Madagascariensis*, and *Nigra*. Their discriminative characters are a long slender bill, somewhat arched underneath, a longitudinal crest, or double row of feathers on the head, which the bird can erect at pleasure, and the feet gressorial.

The family of *Promerops* is conspicuous both for elegance of form and brilliancy of colouring; insomuch that the *Superbus* and *Paradiseus*, in particular, have by some writers been classed with the Birds of Paradise. By others, again, they and their congeners have been considered as more properly belonging to the Hoopoes: but, in general, the lengthened and cuneated tail constitutes a good differential character. Besides the two marked species to which we have alluded, the *Ceruleus*, *Cafers*, *Striatus*, *Mexicanus*, *Aurantius*, and *Erythrorynchos*, are succinctly delineated by Dr. Shaw.

In the title *Meropis*, or *Bee-eater*, are included thirty-six species, which are distinguished by their curved, compressed, and carinated bill; the tip of the tongue being, for the most part, jagged; the two middle tail-feathers projecting beyond the others; and the feet formed for walking. Their general food is insects, especially those of the *Apis* tribe. Their note seldom exceeds a whistle, and that not always of a pleasing tone: but the *Cinnatus*, or *Poë bee-eater*, is prized not less for its long than for its glossy plumage. Their manner of flight, and their habit of seizing their prey, when on wing, in some measure assimilate them to the Swallow tribe; while their gay and vivid colours, and their mode of nidification, are more analogous to those which are exhibited by the King-fishers. Several of the more remarkable species are natives of New Holland, particularly the *Phrygius*, or *Embroidered*, which the author had already described in his Zoology of New Holland.

Under the rufous species, it might have been observed that the individuals belonging to it rather affect than shun the haunts of mankind, and often build their conspicuous nests on the outside of houses, and sometimes even in the interior of human dwellings. They seem neither to penetrate into extensive forests nor to frequent elevated situations, but to reside among bushes, or flutter about in the open plains, appearing always in pairs, and never in families, or flocks. When they sing, they bring their body forwards, stretch out their neck, and beat their wings. Their note, which is common to both sexes, is heard throughout all the year, and consists in the shrill, frequent, and lively repetition of the syllable *chi*. Their nest, which is composed of clay, is hemispherical, or shaped

like a baker's oven, about six inches and a half in diameter, and one inch in thickness. The male and female alternately go in quest of and arrange little balls of clay, of the size of a hazel nut, and will sometimes complete the structure in the course of two days. From the entrance on the side, is a partition within, which terminates in a circular form, on the opposite side; with a small communication to the chamber, in which four white eggs, dashed with rufous dots, are deposited. As these nests commonly last for more than one season, they are sometimes seized by the brown Swallow, and other birds, which are desirous of saving themselves the trouble of building: but, if the original proprietors wish to re-occupy them, they banish intruders without ceremony.

The *Certhiæ*, or *Creepers*, comprise upwards of a hundred species, and naturally occupy an intermediate station between the Bee-eaters and the Humming-birds, with both of which some of them may be very readily confounded. In many instances, however, they may be separated from the former by the want of the equal projection of the two middle tail-feathers, and from the latter by the structure of the tongue. This organ, in the Creepers, is generally of a lengthened form, divided into several processes or filaments at the extremity; while in the Humming-birds it rather resembles a long double tube, the end of which is also sometimes divided into filaments as in the Creepers. In the splendor and variety of their colours, the Creepers rival the Humming-birds, to which they are so nearly allied that in some of the smaller species the distinction between the two genera becomes somewhat obscure. Indeed, we must profess our ignorance of any permanent criteria that will uniformly apply to all the reputed species of *Certhiæ*; and Montbeillard and Vieillot were fully justified in their attempts to reform the genus, although the titles of their divisions are harsh or outlandish. The birds of this family creep along the trunks and branches of trees, with wonderful dexterity and nimbleness, in search of insects and their larvæ; and some of the smaller sorts likewise extract the juices of flowers, in the same manner as the Humming-birds. With the exception of the *Familiaris*, or *Common*, and the *Muraria*, or *Wall-creeper*, few of them occur in Europe. The *African* species, which is a native of the Cape of Good Hope, is not only adorned with the richest colouring, but is much admired for its sweet and tuneful song, which is deemed by some persons superior even to that of the nightingale. The *Wattled* is so designated from having, on each side of the base of the lower mandible, an orange red caruncle. It is a native of the island of Tongataboo; where, in the language of Vieillot, 'it may be considered as the *Coryphæus* of

of the deserts, enlivening the solitary woods with its melody, from the dawn of morning to the close of day.'

The history of the *Trochili*, or *Humming-birds*, is prefaced by the following appropriate remarks:

'The brilliant and lively race of Humming-birds, so remarkable at once for their beautiful colours and diminutive size, are the peculiar natives of the American continent and adjoining islands, and, with few exceptions, are principally confined to the hotter regions. Their vivacity, swiftness, and singular appearance unite in rendering them the admiration of mankind; while their colours are so radiant that it is not by comparing them with the analogous hues of other birds, that we are enabled to explain with propriety their peculiar splendor, but by the more exalted brilliancy of polished metals and precious stones; the ruby, the garnet, the sapphire, the emerald, the topaz, and polished gold, being considered as the most proper objects of elucidation. It is not, however, to be imagined that all the species of Humming-birds are thus decorated: some being even obscure in their colours, and instead of the prevailing splendor of the major part of the genus, exhibiting only a faint appearance of a golden green tinge, diffused over the brown or purplish colour of the back and wings. The genus is of great extent, and in order that the species may with greater readiness be investigated, it has been found necessary to divide them into two sections, viz. the curve-billed, and the straight-billed. The exact limits of the two divisions are, however, difficult to determine.'

'The mode of life in the Humming-birds appears to be uniform. They live by absorbing the sweet juices of flowers, which they extract with their tubular tongue; and though small insects are said to have been sometimes observed in their stomachs, yet this seems rather accidental than regular or natural.'

'A magnificent work has lately appeared on this genus by Messrs. Viellot and Audebert, in which a laudable attempt has been made to exhibit the splendor of the natural colours by means of powder or shell gold impressed on the plates. It must be confessed that it has not succeeded in all instances so completely as might be wished. The work, however, is extremely valuable, not only as containing good figures of the major part of established species, but also of numerous varieties, and is preceded by an elaborate and ingenious disquisition relative to the structure of the feathers and many other particulars.'

From the information of those who have had opportunities of observing the little flutterers in question, we are enabled to add that their bill and feet are weak, but the former very long in proportion to the size of the body; that their nostrils are minute; and that their tongue is capable of being darted a great way out. The strength of their rump and tail-feathers enables them to turn in the air, and to stop short in the midst of their fleetest career, as if suspended before a flower; flapping their

their wings with inconceivable quickness; thrusting their tongue into the nectary, without discomposing the petals; and holding their body in a vertical position, as if stuck fast by the bill. When they are engaged in extracting the honied juice from the blossoms of a tree, a person may approach near them without frightening them away. Their note, which is scarcely ever heard, except when they flit from one flower to another, consists of the syllables *tere*, more or less shrilly but feebly pronounced. Two of them are seldom seen together, or even on the same tree: but, when they happen to encounter, they are bold and pugnacious; and their fierce conflicts often terminate in their sudden disappearance, without the spectator being able to decide on the issue of the struggle. They make a long hemispherical nest, of the down of a species of thapsus, and suspend it from the branches of trees; where it is concealed by the leaves, the female laying two white eggs, of the size of peas, which are hatched by the alternate incubation of both parents. These guardians of their tender progeny display great courage in driving away other birds which approach their nest, and will sometimes assail and chase them, without any apparent motive. Humming-birds are taken alive by firing at them with sand, scattering water over them from a syringe, or intangling them in delicate nets, because the finest shot would tear them to pieces, and twigs smeared with bird-lime would destroy their plumage.

Among sixty or seventy species reviewed in the present work, the *Pella*, *Mango*, *Colubris*, *Vielloti*, and *Minimus*, may perhaps be selected, as most worthy of the reader's attention. Having stated the characters which apply to the *Mango*, Dr. Shaw thus proceeds:

‘Dr. Latham mentions a variety of this species in which the throat, on each side the black stripe, was white. He also informs us that a pair of young Humming-birds, supposed to be of this species, are reported, on unexceptionable testimony, to have been brought alive to England, having been hatched during their voyage from Jamaica, where the parent bird, while sitting on her eggs, was discovered by a young gentleman then on the point of leaving the island. He cut off the twig on which the nest was placed, and brought it on board the ship. The female soon became sufficiently tame to suffer herself to be fed with honey, and during the voyage hatched two young ones, but did not long survive that event; the young were however so successfully managed as to be brought in good health to England, where they were in the possession of Lady Hammond. Dr. Latham adds, that Sir Henry Englefield, Bart., and Colonel Sloane were both witnesses to these little birds readily taking honey from the lips of Lady Hammond with their bills. One of the birds survived at least two

two months from the time of its arrival; but the other did not live many days*.

Referring our readers to the work itself for the lively and engaging notices of the *Colubris*, or red-throated species, we may be allowed to remark that, like the rest of its congeners, it is seldom caught alive. A gentleman, however, who had observed one of them enter into the bell of a convolvulus, ran immediately to the spot, shut the flower, cut it from the stalk, and carried off the surprized captive: but he could not induce it to take food; and it died in two or three days. Charlevoix, when in Canada, had one of them in his possession for twenty-four hours. It suffered itself to be handled, and even counterfeited death, that it might escape: but it fell a real sacrifice to a slight frost, during the night. 'My friend Captain Davies informs me,' says Dr. Latham, 'that he kept these birds alive for four months by the following method: he made an exact representation of some of the tubular flowers, with paper fastened round a tobacco-pipe, and painted them of a proper colour. These were placed in the order of nature, in the cage in which the little creatures were confined; the bottoms of the tubes were filled with a mixture of brown sugar and water as often as emptied; and he had the pleasure of seeing them perform every action; for they soon grew familiar, and took their nourishment in the same manner as when ranging at large, though close under the eye.'

The *Toucans*, which chiefly affect the warmer regions of South America, are at once recognized by their very large, light, hollow, convex bill, serrated outwardly, and slightly curved at the tip; and by their narrow, cartilaginous, and feather-like tongue. They feed principally on fruit, especially that of the palms, and sometimes on the buds of trees, and insects: but they also destroy a great many small birds, assailing them with their enormous bills, expelling them from their nests, and, even in their presence, devouring their young, or their eggs, which

* Azara, in his History of Paraguay, tells us that Don Pedro Melo of Portugal, governor of Paraguay, kept a Humming-bird, which was caught full-grown, for the space of four months. It was permitted to fly about the house at full liberty, knew its master perfectly well, whom it would salute, and fly round him in order to ask its food. Don Melo at such times took a cup of clear syrop, and, inclining it a little, the bird would plunge its beak into it and feed. He also gave it flowers from time to time, and thus this charming animal lived apparently as well as in the open plains, till at length, during the absence of its master, it perished through the negligence of the domestics.

they

they pull out of holes, or tumble to the ground. If a nest be constructed of clay, they refrain from attacking it till it is softened by rain, when they easily demolish it by repeated blows. From these distinctive propensities, Azara has classed them with birds of prey, though their organization and general habits are very different. They are often observed in small flocks, of eight or ten, roaming from place to place in quest of food, and advancing northwards or southwards as the fruits ripen, without being guided by the impulse of stated migrations. They make their nests in the cavities of decayed wood, or in holes that have been abandoned by wood-peckers; and they are said to lay two eggs: but probably they breed more than once in a year, as they are rather numerous, though the diversity of species is comparatively limited. These birds seldom live long in a state of confinement, and are of such a chilly temperament that even in their native climates they shrink from the cool of the evening. One of the largest species is that which Dr. Shaw denominates the *Aldrovandine Toucan*, and which corresponds to *Ramphastos picatus*, Lin.

‘Total length about twenty inches; of which the bill measures six, and is of a yellowish green colour with a reddish tip: the general colour of the bird is black, with a gloss of greyish green on the wings; the breast yellow or orange-colour; the thighs, lower part of the belly, vent-feathers, and tip of the tail, bright red. This species is a native of Guiana and Brazil, and seems to have been first distinctly described by Aldrovandus. It is said to have a frequent habit of moving its head from side to side, while uttering its notes, which resemble ill-articulated words, and hence, in its native regions, has obtained the popular name of the Preacher.’

Very nearly related to the foregoing genus, but differing in the greater strength of the bill, and in the entire sides and bifid extremity of the tongue, is the *Scythrops Australasie*, or *Australasian channel-bill*, the only known species of its genus. It is the *Psittaceous horn-bill* of Phillips, and the *Anomalous-horn-bill* of White.

Crotophaga, in like manner, comprehends only one species, namely, the *Americana*; which has the bill distinctly carinated, or keeled, on the top.

‘This species is principally an inhabitant of the hotter regions of South America, and particularly of Brazil; it occurs however in various parts of North America, as well as in several of the West Indian islands. There appear to be two races or varieties, agreeing in colour and general appearance, but differing in size; the larger being nearly of the size of a Magpie, and the smaller hardly exceeding that of a Blackbird.

‘In their mode of life, these birds resemble the genus *Buphaga*, feeding principally on insects which infest cattle, and particularly on those

those of the genus *Acarus* ranking under the division *Rioimus* or Tick, which in those regions are often dreadfully injurious to the cattle; they also feed on various kinds of lizards, worms, caterpillars, &c., and, in defect of these, will often attack various kinds of vegetables, and particularly maize and rice. They generally frequent open places, and are never observed in woods of any considerable size. They usually fly in small flocks of twenty or thirty together, and when on the ground or perched, are always observed to carry their heads drawn in or close to the shoulders, sitting near each other, and uttering a constant chattering cry somewhat in the manner of Starlings. They are of a bold and fearless nature, and are scarcely alarmed at the sound of fire-arms; and as they are not numbered among edible birds, on account of the rankness of their flesh, they may be said to enjoy a kind of privileged security. Their wings are short, and their flight feeble, and during a storm numbers are said to be destroyed. They breed in March, and build in thick bushes, forming a very large nest of interlaced twigs and grasses; lined with dry leaves. It is pretended that several females lay and hatch their eggs in the same nest; so that these birds may be considered as in some degree analogous to Beavers among quadrupeds. The nest is about a foot and half in diameter, and of a very considerable depth; but varies according to the number of families that are to inhabit it. Some individuals however are said to build single nests, or else make divisions in the cavity of a large one for their own offspring; where this is not done, the whole of the eggs roll together in the middle of the nest, and one bird is said often to cover or sit on the whole; but it is to be supposed that in this case they relieve each other by turns; when the nest is at any time left without an attendant, care is taken to cover the eggs with a layer of leaves, both for concealment, and in order to preserve a proper degree of heat; and when the numerous family is hatched, the busy mothers are assisted by the males in feeding the young; and where several groups have been hatched in the separate inclosures of the larger nests, the parents are said to feed all in common, without making any particular distinction between their own offspring and that of their neighbours. They are observed to breed several times in a year; and the eggs, which are several in number, are of a bluish green colour.

'The Keel-bill is a bird of a tame and gentle nature, and when taken early, may be educated in the same manner as a parrot, and taught to speak, but its disagreeable smell is a reason for seldom practising this experiment. Whether the larger and smaller races above mentioned ought to be considered as constituting one and the same species only, or whether they are truly distinct, can perhaps only be ascertained by an accurate examination of all particulars relative to these birds when observed in their native regions.'

A very attractive portion of the present volume is that which unfolds the history of the *Parrot* tribe; upwards of a hundred and sixty species or varieties of which are noticed under the generic title *Pittacus*. Although they preferably reside in the warmer countries of the old and the new continents, and although

none

none of them are natives of Europe, yet they are found at a much greater distance from the equator than Buffon had too rashly assigned to them. Their roosting stations are usually in the woods of islands, situated in rivers which traverse large forests, or in other places of difficult access. In the form of their bill, they resemble the *Accipitres*, but in their manners they coincide with the other genera of *Pica*. They feed on the fruit and seeds of various plants, are for the most part very docile, and, by means of their thick, fleshy, and rounded tongue, are often enabled to articulate with more precision than most other birds. They climb with great ease; having, besides the ordinary structure of scansorial feet, the power of bringing forwards one of the hind toes at pleasure, and of assisting themselves with their bill, the upper mandible of which is moveable. They associate in pairs, and occasionally assemble in large flocks. Some of the species equal the domestic fowl in size, while others exceed not the dimensions of a sparrow: but most of them attain to a very considerable age. Like monkeys, they carry their food to their mouth with their feet, and, like them, are also noted for their active, imitative, and petulant dispositions.

In his elucidation of this splendid and interesting section of the feathered race, Dr. Shaw has ably availed himself of Levaillant's superb delineations; without overlooking the important details which have been furnished by Edwards, Latham, Buffon, and other respectable ornithologists.

Some striking particulars are recorded of the Scarlet Macaw. As a proof of the attachment of which that bird is susceptible, we may mention that an inhabitant of the town of Assumption, in Paraguay, having shot one of them in the country, tied it to his horse's crupper: when another individual of the same species followed him to his house, which was in the heart of the town, and, when he alighted in the court-yard, threw itself on the dead bird. For several successive mornings, the same affectionate creature was observed on the wall of the court-yard, and was at length found by the servants at the side of its dead companion, when it allowed itself to be caught; and it afterward became an inmate of the house.

Under the article *Psittacus Guianensis*, or *Pavouane Parakeet*, the author introduces an important observation of Levaillant, relative to the long-tailed Parakeets in general, viz.:

Though this tribe may properly enough be allowed to constitute two natural subdivisions, one distinguished by having the tail regularly or gradually cuneated by the successive elongation of the side-feathers to the middle ones, and the other by an elongation of the side-feathers to a certain distance only, the two middle ones running out

out to a great extent beyond them, yet in a state of domesticity it not unfrequently happens, in consequence of the process of moulting, that the genuine shape of the tail is injured or altered in its proportions; thus causing a great degree of uncertainty as to the tribe to which the bird belongs. It is to this circumstance that Mous. Levaillant attributes the mistakes in the work of Buffon, who has often described the same species under different names, and under different divisions in the tribe. Hence the necessity of obtaining, if possible, such specimens as have been taken in their truly natural or wild state.

Pittacus Alexandri, or *Alexandrine Parakeet*, is so named because it is supposed to have been first made known to the ancient Greeks in consequence of the Indian expeditions of Alexander the Great.—‘In the reign of Nero, the Romans first became acquainted with other species of parrots, which they obtained from various parts of Africa.’—‘These birds appear to have been in great request among the Romans, who lodged them in superb cages, ornamented with silver, tortoise-shell, and ivory; and the price of a parrot often exceeded that of a slave.’—We are also reminded that Ovid’s beautiful elegy on the death of a parrot refers to an individual of the *Alexandrine* species; and Dr. Shaw has not only inserted the original text of this elegant effusion, but has accompanied it by a free and spirited translation.

Some anecdotes are related of the *Erethacus*, or common grey species, which we would transcribe if we had room; and we unwillingly suppress the details reported of the *Aurora*, a real or supposed variety of the *Amazon* parrot: but they are too extensive for our pages.

The deportment of the *Damask* parrots, as portrayed by Levaillant, forms the subject of another very amusing passage. It is time, however, to close this article, with the single remark that the dry and uninviting complexion of a very considerable portion of the present volume ought, in fairness, to be ascribed rather to the nature of the subject than to any remission of the author’s exertions; since it treats of a great variety of birds, of whose habits and dispositions little satisfactory information has been obtained.

ART. III. : *Poems on several Occasions.* By Edward Lord Thurlow. Cr. 8vo. 8s. Boards. White and Cochrane. 1813.

W^e distinguish much genius in these poems, much irregular fancy, and much uncorrected taste. The noble author dwells in another sphere, and lives in another age. The romantic Sidney is his real prototype, and his imaginary companion. He feels, thinks, and writes, like a “*preux chevalier*.”

The consequences of possessing this etherialized imagination are various. In the first place, here are indications of some of the highest qualities of intellect, united with the purest rectitude of feeling, and with the warmest goodness of heart : but, at the same time, we perceive an air of *impracticability* about the whole poetical character ; frequently a lamentable deficiency in judgment ; and a perverse mixture of grave and gay that destroys the effect of both. We shall illustrate our panegyric, and (we fear) amply confirm our censure, by several extracts from the little collection of verses before us.

In the fragment of a poem harmoniously written in the octave stanza, we have the following address from a very visionary species of muse, to the hero of the occasion, Zerbino. We should premise that the spirit and the extravagance of Ariosto seem to be equally the objects of the author's imitation :

- “ O youthful guest, whose lineaments divine
Bespeak you of the blood of kings to be,
That softly wander on these shores of mine,
Where all things of delight you well may see,
If to diviner wisdom you incline,
And thirst for fruit of immortality,
Zerbino, to your sight I will declare
What wonders are in earth, in sea, in air.
- “ The silv'ry dragons to the team of thought,
That feed upon the pleasure of the air,
From out their silent caverns shall be brought,
And yoked to the wheel ; do you prepare,
Zerbino, as when greatest things are wrought,
To fortify your breast with sacred prayer ;
For in a little space you shall behold
The courts of amber, and the gates of gold !
- “ I tell you, you shall walk the shades of night,
And hear the song, that can turn back the day,
For Hell, Zerbino, opens to my might,
And upward to the Morning I can stray :
The Muse I am, that offer to your sight
The banks of Lethe, and the starry way :
No harm shall meet you on your sacred road ;
For Virtue in all worlds hath her abode.
- “ 'Tis Virtue, not your golden arms, can save
Your soul from Evil, that with wand'ring flight
Doth journey on the wing of Care, and brave
The fine perdition of the beamy light ;
For Rest is not her consort, by the wave
Of Stygian darkness, or the crystal height ;
But with an iron plume she beats the air,
Incessant on her journey of despair.”

After

After a brief and less alarming allusion to Virgil, the poet proceeds in a strain that sets our heads swimming, when we attempt to follow him :

“ I will you show the palace of the Moon,
And take you in the track of Phœbus' car,
In all his glorious altitude at Noon;
Where you may wonder, how each little star,
Like pearl, upon the milky air is strewn;
And see the World diminish'd from afar:
Awake, Zerbino, for the Sun is high,
And we ere night must to Olympus fly.”

A description of the Muse, who is speaking, succeeds; and, saving the quantity of ‘golden * light,’ and ‘silver’ qualities of sundry kinds that are about her, she is a worthy inhabitant of Heaven.

The encouragement and respect due from crowned heads to poets, and ever paid to them by judicious monarchs, according to Lord Thurlow, are thus inculcated :

“ They fill him with deep cups of Bacchus old,
And bless him with the fat of venison;
The while some ancient tale is strictly told,
And reverend Age doth give its benison
To what the stately tables do uphold:
Then musick, that is sure a denizen
Of Phœbus' court, with some immortal air,
The light digestion doth for him prepare.”

“ So then upon the stringed harp he sings
A song, that may delight Olympian Jove;
Of something, which he learnt beside the springs
Of Helicon, that with eternal love
He fills the feast, and to sweet madness brings
The breast of him, who from his throne above
Doth bow his ear to catch the sacred song,
And drinketh with delight the musick strong.”

“ Now so Augustus to our Virgil did;
He fed him with the black Falernian wine;
By which the themes, that else had been forbid,
Were chanted with sweet love, and joy divine:
Too long his Muse had been with shepherds hid,
But now amid' the stately courts doth shine;
By great Mæcenas to Augustus brought,
All Italy had glory in his thought.”

“ But, checking here the rein, I must return
To good Zerbino, &c. &c.”

* The profusion of gold and silver that occurs in this author really tantalizes us in the present era of paper.

Zerbino, in a journey through the air, which he takes with his celestial monitress, expresses a wish to tarry a while within sight of Jerusalem; and, looking down on the holy city, he thus deploras that "abomination of desolation" which abides among her ruins :

' For, ah ! her pride is gone, her glory waste,
Her temples in the mournful dust are laid ;
Dishonour'd by her foemen, and defac'd,
That so the will of God might be obey'd ;
Her sons are slain, her ramparts are displac'd,
A byeword to the nations she is made ;
And yet, abandon'd, like a mourning Queen,
Magnificent in sorrow she is seen.

' No more her songs of marriage shall be heard
To shake the roofs of cedar, and of gold ;
No more her youth shall be to battle stirr'd,
When they the fairness of her state behold ;
No more within her gates, at ev'ning heard,
Her aged men shall commune, and unfold
The wonders of their youth, and fairer days ;
But mute her love, and silent is her praise.'

This is in his Lordship's best style, and we wish that he would cultivate his talent for the pathetic rather than for the sublime. We hope to see the improvement, and the continuation, of the poem of 'Hermilda,' (whence we have made these extracts,) ere we have grown much more grey in our critical employment.

We beg, however, that the noble author may be advised not to introduce so large a portion of the House of Peers to the acquaintance of the general reader, in the next edition. We never saw so much of Debrett's Peerage versified before. Here is a sonnet 'To the Most Noble Prince, the Duke of Dorset;' another to 'The Right Hon. the Earl Spencer;' who is not only 'Knight of the Most Noble Order of the Garter,' but, in this poet's language, a 'transcendant Lord;' another 'To the Right Honourable the Earl of Moira, Lord Hastings and Rawdon,' who is 'a great Lord;' another 'To the Right Honourable Lord Holland,' who is 'a most favour'd Lord;' another 'To the Right Honourable the Earl of Granard,' who is an 'heroick Lord.'—"Good Lord!" to see the various ways,"—&c. &c. &c.

The 'Song to Sir Philip Sidney,' which follows, is the best of several encomiastic addresses to the memory of that illustrious man : but it is quaintly broken off with a parenthetical inuendo, that

'The author did not finish this poem.'

We

We greatly disapprove this kind of "*Bear and Fiddle*" conclusion; especially as we have another fragment in the volume.

We have not only to object to the frequent recurrence of obsolete and affected phraseology, (such as '*beamy*' for '*beamy*;' and '*whatso*;' for '*whatever*;' '*naked paps*' for a more delicate expression; '*y-shone*;' and '*excessful*;' &c. &c. &c.) but we must censure some occasional inaccuracies in grammar, such as '*that*' for '*who*;' and the awkward omission of the article, &c.; and, particularly, we must point out for erasure such flatnesses as

'*But more in the next canto will appear*,'—

with other liberties of the same kind; in which a writer seems rather disposed to pull his reader by the nose for listening to him, than to repay his attention with due respect.

A '*Song to Amoret*' is truly in the style of the "*Verses by a Person of Quality*."

'*Let not a tear thus stain thy cheek,
Which glows a purple flame.*'

The '*purple light of love*' is rather burlesqued than fairly represented by this picture of it.

We must now, however, take leave of the Noble Lord, who will, we think, write more correctly if he attends to our suggestions: but, even if he disregards them, he has powers sufficient to atone for many defects, and clearly to distinguish him from the common herd of poets.

ART. IV. *The New Art of Memory*, founded upon the Principles taught by M. Gregor Von Feinaigle: to which is prefixed some Account of the Principal Systems of Artificial Memory, from the earliest Period to the present Time. Illustrated by Engravings. 12mo. pp. 408. 12s. Boards, Sherwood and Co. 1812.

THE improvement of the memory, like that of our other faculties, depends so much on its exercise, that any study which calls it into action must in some measure strengthen and increase its powers, and is, therefore, if for no other reason, deserving of attention and encouragement. Independently, however, of this recommendation, to which the system of M. Gregor Von Feinaigle has an undoubted claim, its ingenuity and practical utility must be generally acknowledged, although a difference of opinion may exist with regard to its probable permanency. These reasons, and the novelty of the subject, will induce us to appropriate a larger space than may seem to be demanded, or deserved, to the consideration of a

volume which is not sanctioned by the Professor, but is compiled by a person who, as he states in his preface, attended only 'one course of lectures.' He adds that he 'took very copious notes,' and afterward supplied 'the analogies and illustrations to which the lecture had very cursorily and distantly alluded.' The favourable opinion of friends, as usual, sent the work to the printer; and the editor declares that he 'is not aware that any apology is due to the Professor on account of this publication.' Without at present deciding this question, we should, were we in M. Feinaigle's place, be less inclined to quarrel with the author on the score of illiberality, than for the meagre and unsatisfactory account of the system which the comparatively small number of pages here appropriated to it can supply.

M. Gregor Von Feinaigle, who is a native of Baden, visited Paris in March 1807, and delivered lectures on his "*New System of Mnemonics and Methodics*;" as we learn from a Letter written by M. Fichtel, who in speaking of them thus expresses himself:

"Notwithstanding the simplicity with which he announced his lectures in the papers, I could not determine myself to become a pupil of his, as I thought to find a quack or mountebank, and to be laughed at by my friends for having thrown away my cash in such a foolish manner. Perhaps I should hesitate to this moment about the utility of this new-invented method to assist our natural memory, had I not had the pleasure of dining at his Excellency's the Count of Metternich, the Austrian ambassador, who followed, with all his secretaries, the whole course of lectures: they all spoke very advantageously of it, likewise several other persons of the first rank I met there: in consequence of this I was inserted into the list of pupils, and I follow, at this moment, the lectures. All I can tell you about this method is: it is a very simple one, and easy to be learned, adapted to all ages and sexes: all difficulties in such sciences as require an extraordinary good memory, for instance, the names and epochs in history, are at once overcome and obviated. There is not one branch of science to which this method cannot be applied."

He adds that, in consequence of certain sarcasms in the public prints, "M. Feinaigle, to answer all these critics at once," gave a public exhibition; at which, without his appearance, twelve or fifteen of his pupils attended, and

"Each made such an application of the method as his situation in life required. The principal parts were the following: history about names and years; geography, with respect to longitude, latitude, number of inhabitants, square miles, &c. &c.; grammar in various languages, about different editions of the same work; pandects, their division, and title of each book, &c.; different systems of botany, poetry, arithmetic, &c. &c. At last one desired the company to give

give him one thousand words, without any connection whatsoever, and without numeric order; for instance, the word *astronomer*, for No. 62.; *wood*, for No. 188.; *lovely*, for No. 370.; *dynasty*, for No. 23.; *David*, for No. 90, &c. &c., till all the numbers were filled; and he repeated the whole (notwithstanding he heard these words, without order, and but once,) in the numerical order; or he told you what word was given against any one number, or what number any one word bore. It is still more striking, but certainly, likewise, more difficult, to retain as many numbers however great they may be. For words and numbers I could venture myself, with the greatest safety, as far as one hundred of each; and I am sure, after having fixed them once, which is done in less than ten minutes, I could repeat them to you at any period, without ever thinking any more of them."

To these statements of M. Fichtel, is added the more important testimony of the celebrated French astronomer, M. Lalande.—Early in 1811, M. Feinaigle visited England; and, having made use of his own system in the acquirement of the language, he "gave at the Royal Institution a public Experiment of the efficacy of his Method of facilitating and assisting Memory."

"The exhibition took place before an assembly of several hundred Ladies and Gentlemen, who were astonished and delighted with the result of the experiment. Four children, two boys and two girls, all under 14 years of age, had been put under Mr. Feinaigle's care but two or three days before: he had one of the girls but an hour and a half; and the longest tuition that any of them had received was but four hours and a half.—One of them repeated Goldsmith's *Hermis* backward and forward, and stated the stanza, the line, and the order of any remarkable word required of him.—One little girl answered to questions in the chronology of the Roman Emperors; and another multiplied, without slate or paper, *two sums of eight figures by eight*, and declared that she had not previously been taught arithmetic.—A boy determined the geographical situation, in degrees and minutes, of 50 different cities; and on a planisphere chalked out on a board, marked down the true situation of places named to him.—Mr. Fincher, of the Institution, also recited the Mineralogical Tables of Haüy, the second part of which he had taught himself on Mr. Feinaigle's system, together with the first part of Brisson's Ornithologic System; and he declared, from his own experience, that the principles of Mr. Feinaigle's art were equally calculated to give facility in the acquisition, and certainty in the retention, of the tables of any other science—a fact which was confirmed by several Gentlemen present, who have attended the private courses of the Professor.—Nothing could be more satisfactory than the result of the experiments; and the company returned Mr. Feinaigle their thanks."

These experiments, with some extraordinary additions, were repeated in various parts of the kingdom with the same success in that and the following years; during which time he

numbered among his pupils some of the highest characters in the country.

Having thus raised the curiosity of our readers by a statement of some of the effects of the system, we will endeavour to satisfy it by giving, as simply as we can, a short abstract of the plan itself; the principles of which are so similar to those of the *topical memory* of the ancients, that we shall repeat some of the remarks of the late Professor Barron on the subject, as quoted in the volume before us, from his *Lectures on Belles-Lettres and Logic* *.

“ The principal expedient for assisting the memory is derived from association. For instance, when I see a house, I naturally recollect the inhabitants, their manner of life, and the intercourse I have had with them. The sight of a book prompts the memory of its contents, and the pleasure, or profit, I have received from the perusal of it. A view of the sea may suggest the idea of a storm, and the painful recollection of the loss of property, or of the life of a friend, by shipwreck. The art, then, of aiding recollection by association, is to connect thoughts remote, or abstract, with others more obvious and familiar, that the recurrence of the latter may bring along with it the memory of the former. Thus the sight of my ring, which I cannot miss to observe, reminds me of the action, to suggest the remembrance of which I moved it from one finger to another. The ringing of the bell, or the sounding of the clock, prompts the recollection of the business I had resolved to perform at these times. A glimpse of the first words of a paragraph, or a page, introduces the recollection of the whole. In a word, we must connect the things we wish to remember with the immediate objects of our senses, that offer themselves daily to our attention, but particularly with the objects of our sight, the most vigorous and lively of all our senses, and of which the objects are, perhaps, more numerous than those of all our other senses put together.

“ This theory is the foundation of all contrivances which have been, or, perhaps, can be, employed to help recollection.”

The foundation of the system, then, like that of the ancients, being locality and association, but ‘ more extensively and advantageously applied than it was by them,’ M. Feinaigle begins, with great policy, by exposing the defects and difficulties in their division of a room; which rendered a complex calculation necessary, before the situation of any given number could be found. On each of the four walls of a room, they would represent in their minds the letter M., to the five points of which they would attach numbers in regular order; thus making one room contain twenty numbers, on which

* See Rev. Vol. liii. N. S. p. 67.

twenty different matters to be remembered could be fixed. This method they carried through as many rooms as they required; and when they wished to recall an object, they referred to the number of the point of M on which it had been placed: but this was a troublesome process; because, supposing that the number required was 48, it was necessary, in the first place, to divide that number by 20, in order to find the *room* in which it occurred, and the *next* number to the quotient was that of the room; thus, 2 is the quotient, and 3 is the number of the room;—the remainder, 8, was then to be divided by 5, to find the *side* of the room; and here again the quotient, 1, is not the answer, for it must be on the 2d side;—and then the number left, 3, was the *place* on that side. The complexity of this method affords a striking contrast in favour of that which is adopted by M. Von Feinaigle; in whose system the situation of the place, on which the object to be remembered is fixed, is seen in the number itself; thus, the number 48 is on the *fourth* side of the room, and on the *eighth* place on that side. This facility is occasioned by a judicious use of the magical number 9. By drawing two perpendicular and two horizontal lines, every side of a room is made to contain *nine* equal divisions, or squares. These divisions, on each wall, are numbered from 1 to 9. The four walls make the *decimal* figures from 10 to 40, and the order of them is thus arranged: the pupil, standing with his back to the windows, counts from the left to the right as in ordinary reading; the *first* wall is thus on his left hand; the *second*, before him; the *third*, on his right hand; and the *fourth* is behind him. The numbers then on the *first* wall are from 11 to 19; those on the *second*, from 21 to 29; those on the *third*, from 31 to 39; and those on the *fourth*, from 41 to 49. The figures 10, 20, 30, 40, which give the titles to the sides, are placed on the *ceiling* over their respective walls. The *floor*, by being divided in the same manner as the walls, gives the *first nine* figures, and the *centre* of the *ceiling* is numbered 50. One room is thus made to contain a regular series of numbers from 1 to 50; the places of each of which, being permanently fixed, it is impossible to mistake; the corresponding square on each wall having the same *unit* attached to it, and the wall itself designating the *ten*. These numbers can be carried to any extent through other rooms. The Professor shortly exemplifies the use of these divisions, by shewing the great facility with which a number of perceptible objects may be remembered by fixing their locality, and connecting them together, or with some other object already on the place. Our readers will be convinced of the truth of this fact by a single trial of the method. Common experience and ob-

servation prove that the memory altogether depends on the order in which subjects to be remembered are impressed on the mind. A simple artificial locality has always, therefore, been a desirable object, as of the greatest importance in this respect; and since the idea was first practically suggested by Simonides, who delivered the disfigured friends of Scopas to their relatives for interment, by remembering the order in which they sat at the feast, every mnemonist has endeavoured to form an uncomplicated arrangement of places, which has been effected by the ingenuity of the present Professor.

Although, however, we are enabled to remember striking and ludicrous objects by placing them in order on the squares, we shall find that the fixing of numbers, which cannot be represented but by the figures themselves, will not receive any assistance by this arrangement. Neither can letters be so remembered; and there would appear a difficulty in fixing the following letters in their order on the mind: F. N. G. L. S. N. W. R. T. F. M. M. R.:—but, as soon as these letters are made *sense* by the introduction of vowels, and it is found that they compose the words *Feinaigle's New Art of Memory*, the difficulty disappears and the consonants must then of necessity be repeated in their order. Thus, likewise, by changing the figures into consonants, and forming words by the addition of vowels, and by placing these words, which should be the names of sensible objects, in the order before described, any number of figures may be remembered with the greatest readiness. All the consonants are, accordingly, divided among the figures, and the vowels are entirely omitted. In Dr. Grey's system, figures are also expressed by letters: but he uses the vowels and consonants indiscriminately, having one of each to represent each figure. The words which he compounds from them have no meaning whatever, but are supposed to be remembered by being formed into a sort of nonsense-verse, composed of various words, the first syllables of which are the *subjects*, and the remainder are the *dates* that apply to them. As these lines, however, from their total want of sense, must require much study and frequent repetition to fix them on the memory, it appears to us that no more exertion would be necessary to enable the student to remember the dates themselves, without resorting to such a method. No such difficulty is found in M. Von Feinaigle's system; in which, by the exclusion of the vowels as representatives of the figures, the pupil has only to form a word, (expressing a sensible object,) the consonants in which give the date that he requires,

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The application of the art to *chronology* is perfectly simple and easy. A series of kings, &c., with the years in which they began to reign, may be so strongly fixed on the mind in a quarter of an hour, that nothing can obliterate the impression. This is done by converting the name of the king into some perceptible object; the designation of which is so similar to the sovereign's name in sound, that it cannot fail to be recognized: as *Willow* for *William*; *Hen* for *Henry*, &c. The letters composing the date are then formed into a word, which the learner connects with the object into which the name of the king is changed; forming some fanciful picture of the whole, to be placed on the square which answers to the number in the series. The second and other kings of the same name (if there be more than one,) are shewn by placing two or more of the objects by which the first was represented; as *three willows* for *William III.*, or *eight hens* for *Henry VIII.* The representation for this purpose, and throughout the whole of the system, must be such as can be painted, or seen "in the mind's eye;" and it will be found that the more ludicrous and uncommon the association is, the more strong will be the impression on the mind. We will attempt to explain an example. The *fifth* king of England after the Conquest was *Henry II.*, who began to reign in the year 1154. This is represented by *two hens* and a *taylor*. The consonants in the latter word designate the figures 154, the preceding thousand being understood in all; and the *two hens* are the symbols, as before explained, of *Henry II.* These are connected by some ludicrous association, which of course will strike each learner differently, and the whole picture is placed on the fifth square of the room, thus shewing the number in the series of the kings. If, therefore, the date of *Henry II.*'s reign be asked, the student immediately looks to the square on which he has placed the *two hens*, and the whole answer is seen at one view; the remembrance of any part of the combination calling to mind the remainder of the picture.

This method, with a perfect knowledge of the room in which the series is placed, will be found completely sufficient for the purposes of chronology: but an additional facility is given. The numbers having already been *localized*, by being placed on the squares of the room, the Professor proceeds to *realize* them, as he expresses himself, by representing them in symbols that resemble in some degree the figures for which they are placed. Thus the figure 2 is distinguished by a *Swan*; 5 by a *Throne*; 6 by a *Cornucopia*; 20 by a *Peacock*; and so on. The pupil, therefore, here receives a set of symbols representing the figures from 1 to 100, which are remembered without much exertion from

from their correct imitation, and from their corresponding situation on the walls. The use to which these are here applied we shall see by referring to the instance of Henry II., before described, which will now stand thus: 5. Henry II. — a *taylor* sitting upon a *throne*, with *two hens*, one under each arm. The association is certainly strengthened, and the picture, made more striking from its increased absurdity, now gives the whole answer at one view: the word '*taylor*' suggesting the date, the '*throne*' shewing the place and the number in the series, and the '*two hens*' expressing, as before, the name of the king.

We do not, however, think that the introduction of these symbols in the study of chronology is necessary, the plan before described being in our opinion amply sufficient, and preferable on account of its greater simplicity; and we would the more readily part with them in this branch of the study, in which the benefit arising from their use is comparatively trifling, because they are so necessary and of such infinite service in the subjects to which they are afterward applied*.

The first three lectures, which contain the matter before described, have enabled the student to fix any number of figures, any variety of dates, and any series of chronological tables; and he may likewise make a very useful application of them in the ordinary business of life. The four next lectures are appropriated to the study of geography and statistics, the application to which will be found both ingenious and simple. Our limits will not allow us to enter minutely into the details, nor should we deem it fair to do so were it in our power; we are only desirous of giving such an account as will recommend the study to the attention of the public by explaining a few of its leading principles, and, instead of defrauding the Professor of the reward which he merits, excite curiosity sufficient to procure him an accession of pupils on his return to the metropolis.

He places the *world* in a couple of rooms, each of which contains one hemisphere. The four quarters of each hemisphere are allotted to the four walls, diminishing gradually in the northern hemisphere, to a point (the north pole) in the centre of the ceiling, the floor being the equator. In the southern hemisphere, the ceiling is the equator, and the pole

* The Professor did not in 1811 introduce the figure-numbers into his lecture on chronology: but, if this book contains a faithful analysis of the subject, it appears that in the following year he adopted the application of them in that as well as in the subsequent lectures.

is made of course in the centre of the floor. Each wall, with its centre of the ceiling or floor, is divided exactly like a common map, every division or square containing 100° , i. e. 10° of longitude, and 10° of latitude. These divisions are denominated ladders, and ladder-steps; the breadth of the ladders containing the degrees of longitude, and the height of the steps giving those of latitude. The number of the ladder, or measure of the longitude, is the *decimal* figure, and that of the step, or latitude, is the *unit*; in the same manner as, in the former part of the system, the number of the wall was the *decimal* figure, and that of the square the *unit*. Thus number 11 (1st ladder, and 1st step,) contains the first 10° of both longitude and latitude, the meridian of Ferro being adopted for greater convenience; and the mode of fixing the principal places within those degrees is as follows. This square, besides a large portion of sea, contains a small part of the coast of Africa, on which are *Sierra Leone*, and *Sanguin*. The figure-numbers before described are here brought into use, in which No. 11. (the title of the square) is represented by the *Pillars of Hercules*. One of these pillars may be supposed to be placed in the sea and the other on the land; and for an association with the names of the places, *Leone* will call to mind a *lion*, which may be the lion killed by Hercules: to which we can add its *blood*, which the name of the other place, *Sanguin*, immediately suggests. Thus, when the places are named, the connection recalls the degrees of longitude and latitude within which they are situated; and when the degrees are given, the places are by the aid of the association as easily remembered. The walls of the room thus becoming a chart of the globe, a little practice will soon enable the student to fix all the principal places in this manner. The great number of squares to be supplied should not deter him from proceeding; because, when he recollects how many degrees are covered by sea, or by places which are too insignificant for notice, he will find his task comparatively easy, especially if he be careful to avoid perplexity, by filling only one square at a time,

The application to *particular geography* is not, in our opinion, so clear, nor indeed so useful, as to *general geography*. The lecture on *statistics*, on the other hand, is very ingenious, and may be turned to great account.

In the lectures on *history*, which is next considered, another division of the room enables it to contain a century; and to each year is appropriated a separate square, on which its various events are represented by an imagined picture.

This lecture is succeeded by three or four on the *study of languages*; in which, however, scarcely any use is made of the mnemonic

mnemonic art. On this account, and because we understand that the system which the Professor has formed is to be more fully explained in a work of his own, we shall at present abstain from any explanation of it: merely stating that the lectures on the subject are very amusing, and contain a great number of examples to prove the connection between various languages, and to account for the alteration which words derived from the same origin undergo in different countries, by a reference to the character and genius of the language into which they have been introduced.

The method of fixing *systematic tables* in the memory is the subject of the next lecture. This is accomplished by realizing, or forming into some sensible object, each name desired to be fixed, and localizing the objects so found in regular order. The study of poetry and prose, of which the succeeding lecture treats, is effected by placing the subject of each stanza, or paragraph, on the symbols or figure-numbers; and connecting them together by some association.

In another lecture, the Professor shews how *multiplication* of many figures may be performed in the midst of company; for which no other assistance is required than the use of the symbols and the letters. The principal advantage of doing this seems to be that the pupil may have an opportunity of exhibiting a specimen of the powers given by the system. It is however an amusing exercise, and not without its use, since it may be practised at any time, and gives the learner facility in forming combinations, and fixing them for more important services. The study of *arithmetic*, introduced in the last lecture, is not aided by the system of artificial memory invented by the Professor, but is rather a new method of teaching figures and the elemental rules of arithmetic; by which, if adopted in the instruction of youth, some labour would undoubtedly be saved. We have seen something similar to M. Feinaigle's rule for multiplication practised in the Lancasterian schools.

Having thus concluded our short abstract of the principles of the system, we shall recur to the commencement of this article, where we have hinted that a difference of opinion might be entertained as to its probable duration; and as our readers will already have classed us among the advocates of the system, they will perhaps be surprised to find that this doubt has existence in our minds. We must, however, acknowledge that, notwithstanding the good opinion of it which we entertain, we are not sanguine in our expectations that it will outlive the present age, or even keep its ground as long as the *Memoria Technica* of Dr. Grey: we even fear that the grave, which shall

contain the ashes of the ingenious Professor of the art, will also bury in oblivion the method which he taught; and that his name will but survive to give authenticity to the wonders related of his system, and to swell the list of those whose instructions have been forgotten from the impossibility of rendering them intelligible on paper. We do not apprehend the accomplishment of this prophecy in consequence of perceiving any deficiency in the plan itself, but as arising from the very nature of the principles on which it is formed; and because we consider that such may be the inevitable fate of any system that is in a great measure founded on fancy, and of which the association of ideas and the application of them to sensible objects are the leading principles. Nobody would attempt to master a mere theory for the assistance of the memory, unsupported by any practical illustrations; and in nearly the same predicament this New Art of Memory is placed, since the examples produced in its support, though perfectly intelligible when explained in the lectures, are of such a nature that it is impossible to give a written description of them. Even in hearing them, they are necessarily so ludicrous as to require more than common dependence on and respect for the instructor, to command seriousness of attention. For this reason, we have forbore to extract more than one of the examples from the present volume; and those practical applications which we have ourselves supplied will be the best illustration of our sentiments. They appear ridiculous and absurd in their present places, and absolutely require oral explanation to be imprinted with any effect on the mind. The different impression which the same object makes on different minds increases the difficulty, and almost precludes the possibility of an effectual explanation in writing. We may, without fear of contradiction, add that the system is very easy to be learned, but very difficult to be taught.

The preceding observations are strengthened by the fact which the larger half of this volume proves; since it contains an account of sixty works on artificial memory, all of which are entirely forgotten, except the one to which we have already alluded. The reason, according to our principles, is obvious. Dr. Grey's system, though certainly not so ingenious as many which preceded it, is of so simple a construction that its principles are easily explained, and its application to practice requires only continued study in the pupil: while the very ingenuity of some of the other systems, by precluding a clear definition of the principles, and throwing a cast of absurdity over the examples, raises an obstacle in the outset more than sufficient to deter the learner from proceeding.

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Though we are therefore compelled, most unwillingly, to express an opinion against the probable immortality of M. Von Feinaigle's art, we are anxious, from a full conviction of its substantial merit, to preserve its existence by every method which our humble powers can suggest. We have attended a course of the Professor's lectures, from which we received much entertainment and information, exclusive of the undeniable advantages to be derived from the application of the system; and we have great pleasure in bearing our testimony to the clear and unaffected manner in which he delivers his instructions, to the readiness with which he answers every objection and explains every difficulty, and to the liberality with which he opens every future course to his former pupils. The system itself, when orally communicated, is adapted to the meanest capacity: besides being infinitely serviceable in the more important subjects, to which other systems have been usually confined, it can with equal facility be used in the common transactions of ordinary life; and its application, as none who have heard his lectures will deny, is rather a source of amusement than of labour. It possesses all the advantages of the preceding methods, and as a whole is superior to any that have yet appeared.

Under these impressions, we can honestly recommend those of our readers, who have the requisite leisure, to attend a course of the lectures. That they may enter on it uninfluenced by any prejudice against the subject, we would advise them not to trust themselves with a perusal of the volume before us, at least till after they have received the Professor's instructions, which alone can make it intelligible. The first 220 pages contain an analysis of the different works on the subject of artificial memory, some of which are given entire. This part of the publication is certainly not devoid of entertainment, and proves that the editor is both assiduous and skilful in compilation: but we doubt whether any real benefit from it can be derived to his readers, adequate to the disproportionate increase of the volume which the introduction of these abstracts occasions. A short account is given, at the conclusion, of several persons who have exhibited 'extraordinary powers of natural memory;' commencing with Hortensius in 115 B. C., and concluding with Jedediah Buxton, in A. D. 1751, whose portrait is added. The detail of the system, which gives the title to the book, is the most unsatisfactory part of it. To this charge, the compiler may answer that an attendance on one course of the lectures could scarcely enable him to give a fuller account, and that no better has yet been furnished to the public: but we may reply that, notwithstanding

ing these reasons, many persons will charge him with illiberality in making the present use of the Professor's instructions, and all will accuse him of something like presumption in supposing himself to be capable of explaining the principles of an art so difficult to be described, and of such various application, after so limited an attendance on the original inculcator.

ART. V. *The Life and Administration of Cardinal Wolsey.* By John Galt.

[*Article concluded from our last Number, p. 351.*]

AMID the transactions to which we have adverted in our former article, an incident occurred which we do not recollect to have seen elsewhere mentioned, but which amply deserves notice, and reflects the highest credit on the Cardinal. At the time of which we are speaking, the law of hereditary succession had not been established in Denmark, any more than in other northern states: but the successor was elected from among the members of the reigning family, and was not invariably although usually the heir-apparent. Mr. Galt justly observes that, even in England,

‘In the reign of Henry VIII., the right of blood does not appear to have been considered as essential in the succession. For he was allowed to dispose of the crown by will, and actually excluded his eldest sister's heirs from the right of succeeding. The English constitution, indeed, appears, generally, to have very distinctly recognized the supreme and ultimate authority of the people, and to have held the monarchs entitled to the throne only so long as they fulfilled their engagements. The opinion of Wolsey as to the obligation of kings, and the power of lords and commons, is now an acknowledged maxim, both in the theory and practice of the constitution.’—

‘Christern II., who married the Emperor's sister, Isabella, and niece to the Queen of England, was, at this time, King of Denmark. During the life of his father, and while only seven years old, he had been elected to succeed to the crown. Whether this was considered by the electors as a favour which entitled them to impose new restrictions on the royal prerogatives, or that the old King, with a view of laying the foundations of a regular hereditary succession in his own family, had conceded that his son should be more limited in power than his predecessors, is of no importance to ascertain; but Christern, after his accession, thought, as the restraints upon him were greater than customary on the kings of Denmark, and having been incurred without his consent, that he was not bound to abide by them. Instead, however, of resigning the crown, as he, therefore, ought to have done, he so acted that the electors were obliged to declare that he had violated the conditions on which he held it. In consequence, they proclaimed the throne vacant, and elected his uncle into the sovereignty.’

‘Christern

* Christern left the country, with his family, and took refuge in the Netherlands, expecting from the powerful relations of his wife, such assistance as might enable him to recover the throne. They afterwards came over to England, and were received by the court with the distinction due to them as the near relations of the Queen. Upon his soliciting aid, however, the Cardinal advised him to repair, without delay, to his patrimonial dominions, and try, by beneficial conduct, to recover the good opinion of the Danes, and a reconciliation with his enemies in Denmark. He assured him that Henry and Charles would use their best persuasion, both by letters and ministers, to the electors, the new King, and the influential lords of the realm, to procure his restoration; and that, out of the respect which Henry had for Isabella, his niece, he would, as an inducement, offer to guarantee to the Danish states, the reformation of those abuses of which they complained, and for which they had deposed him. The Cardinal also added, that the English residentiary at Rome should be immediately instructed to apply to the Pope for his interposition, by briefs and exhortations, in order to accomplish the restoration. "But if these fair and equitable means fail of effect, then others shall be tried. For it is disreputable," said he, "to reason and good sense, that a prince should, by the wilfulness of his lords and commons, be expelled from his kingdom, without having first given an answer to a statement of their grievances." With these assurances, Christern departed, and Wolsey immediately concerted the means for realizing the expectations that he had cherished; but, in the end, the cause was necessarily abandoned.²

We fully agree with Mr. Galt in his reflections on this event,

* On account of the insight which it affords to the Cardinal's political notions. His expressions on the occasion are, indeed, so extraordinary, considering his situation, and the period in which he lived, that, if he had not, under his own hand, furnished the record, they might justly be questioned, having never before been particularly noticed by any historian.³

Although the most be made of this occurrence of wise and constitutional conduct, it is unfortunately but a solitary instance, and cannot purge the Cardinal from those sins of omission and commission which must have embittered his fall, and which continue to weigh down his memory. If in the transaction with the Danish king, he set an example which in this age a heaven-born minister was not wise enough to follow, we cannot forget that he suffered his youthful and inexperienced master to be successively made the dupe of the Popes Julius II. and Leo X., and of his father-in-law Ferdinand; nor that he instigated him so long to delay the restoration of Tournay; nor his shameless bargain with Storza, of the revenues secured to him by Charles; nor his indemnity from the French regent; nor his unwarrantable conduct in the case of the Spanish ambassador;

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nor the extravagant pomp which made him a subject of ridicule to his contemporaries ; nor his oppressions and rapacity ; nor that he encouraged Henry to dispense with Parliaments or to supersede their authority. Though Mr. Galt may sincerely be of opinion that, in Wolsey's ever-varying conduct towards Charles V. and Francis I., the interests of England and of Europe were always uppermost in his mind, we think that a very different line would have been pursued, and that a very different result would have followed, had not Wolsey, in the enviable situation in which he was placed, been induced by the cunning and the bribes of Charles V. to depart from his duty to his King and his country.

It is in vain to say that no guilt is imputable to Wolsey because Henry was privy to all the gratuities and pensions bestowed on him, and to the ignominious traffic which this unprincipled churchman carried on with every state that had any transactions with his sovereign. If Henry did not feel the disgrace which these shameful measures brought on himself,—if he shut his eyes to or was regardless of the consequences,—how does this take away from the baseness and infamy of Wolsey ? Were the pensions and grants on that account less the wages of corruption ? Would the foreign princes have conferred them, if they had expected no fruit to be their produce ? Would they have continued, renewed, and added to them, if they had not found their purposes in them answered ? We are too near the times of Wolsey, the events in which he was engaged are placed too much in open day, the evidence that convicts him is too clear, the instruments which secured the price of his treachery exist, and public opinion and the voice of history are and always have been too decided on the subject, to admit of the chimerical attempt to depict Wolsey as a faithful, upright, minister, appearing in any degree plausible. It would have been as easy for his Eminence in his day to have attained the so-much-desired pontificate, as it is for his present biographer to invest him with any honest and honourable reputation : but it is not with respect to Wolsey alone that Mr. Galt volunteers paradoxes. He sports one far less venial in the following passage, which is to be found in a note at p 107 :

‘ I cannot understand how Sir Thomas More ever came to be considered so highly among the worthies of England as he commonly is. He seems to have been a pleasant-tempered man ; but much of his agreeable qualities arose from an excessive disposition to flatter. During the time he was chancellor, he was fully as complaisant to the King's humours as any of his previous ministers. His literary works have no great merit. I never could muster patience enough to read his *Utopia*. I suspect that much of his celebrity has arisen from his life having been written by his son-in-law.’

REV. MAY, 1813.

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On the subject of his biography, Mr. Galt bestows his warm admiration, while he thus expresses himself of a cotemporary who has been as unanimously admired as Wolsey has been reprobated ; and such is the light in which he views the man who has been universally represented as the brightest ornament of the age, the fine genius, the finished scholar, graced with every virtue, adorned with various accomplishments, of unbending integrity, the incomparable magistrate, and the martyr to his principles ; — mistaken principles, it is true, but honestly entertained by him. It must, however, be owned that it is in character for the panegyrist of Wolsey to be the detractor of Sir Thomas More. To apply the same language to both these personages would, we admit, have a strange appearance : but Mr. Galt is not chargeable with the inconsistency.

Although the more than royal splendour of the Cardinal's style of living is far better known than his character of a faithful and upright minister, under which he is described in the present volume, still our article would be imperfect without some reference to this feature in his life. In the ensuing sketch, an attempt is made to state his revenues, and to give us an idea of his style of living :

‘ Wolsey had attained the meridian of his fortune. In every transaction abroad, his name was mentioned and his influence felt. The learned and the artists of all countries came trooping to his gates, and the kingdom resounded with the fame of his affluence, and the noise of the buildings which he was erecting to luxury and knowledge. His revenues, derived from the fines in the legatine court, the archbishopric of York, the bishopric of Winchester, and the abbey of St. Alban's, with several other English bishoprics, which were held by foreigners, but assigned to him at low rents for granting them the privilege of living abroad, together with his pensions from Charles and Francis, the emoluments of the chancellorship, the revenues of the bishoprics of Badajos and Placentia, in Spain, with rich occasional presents from all the allies of the King, and the wealth and domains of forty dissolved monasteries, formed an aggregate of income equal to the royal revenues. His house exhibited the finest productions of art, which such wealth could command in the age of Leo X. The walls of his chambers were hung with cloth of gold, and tapestry still more precious, representing the most remarkable events in sacred history, for the easel was then subordinate to the loom. His floors were covered with embroidered carpets, and sideboards of cypress were loaded with vessels of gold. The sons of the nobility, according to the fashion of the age, attended him as pages ; and the daily service of the household corresponded to the opulence and ostentation of the master.

‘ The entertainment which the Cardinal gave at Hampton Court to the French commissioners, who were sent to ratify the league, offensive and defensive, exceeded in splendor every banquet which
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had, before that time, been exhibited in England. Two hundred and eighty beds, with furniture of the costliest silks and velvets, and as many ewers and basons of silver, were prepared for the guests. The halls were illuminated with innumerable sconces and branches of plate. Supper was announced by the sound of trumpets, and served with triumphal music. But the master was not yet come. He had been detained late in London, and the desert, which consisted of figures, castles, and cathedrals, in confectionary, with all the emblems of ecclesiastical pomp, and the pageants of chivalry, was on the tables, when he entered, booted and spurred. Having welcomed the guests, he called for a golden bowl, filled with hipocras: the French commissioners were served, at the same time, with another, and they reciprocally drank to the health of their respective sovereigns. He then retired to dress; and returning speedily to the company, exerted those convivial talents which had first contributed to his attainment of this excessive grandeur. The Frenchmen doubted which most to admire, the mansion, the feast, or the master. Wolsey felt exultingly gratified, and the measure of his greatness could hold no more.

How vapid is this empty pomp, when compared to the real grandeur which surrounds a truly great and beneficent character! How different is the submission which is thus extorted, from the unfeigned homage which the mind voluntarily pays to a Fabricius or a Marvel!

The short passage which follows, although presenting to us nothing that is novel, is so interesting and so just, (if we except the latter part of it,) that we must submit it to our readers:

‘The terrible constancy with which the people have reviled, for more than six hundred years, the English system of rule, must be ascribed to the effect of something vicious in that system. The relative condition of the people will appear to have continued unaltered since that epoch; and yet, in all the series of the ministers who have successively ruled England, will it be found that any one of them has pursued a wiser policy, than that of Cardinal Wolsey?’

The detail of this policy, particularly after the challenge which is here held out, ought to have formed a part of the present narrative; and it would not, in our opinion, have been the least interesting portion of it.

Mr. Galt thus describes Wolsey’s scheme of ecclesiastical reform:

‘He saw that the clergy would be compelled to resign their influence over the affairs of mankind, unless they could recover that relative superiority of knowledge, by which, in ruder times, they had acquired the ascendancy. What stood, in his mind, as the church of Christ, was the pre-eminency of the priesthood. In the consequences of the Lutheran opinions he did not affect to value the precepts, but only the damage and detriment which might ensue to the papal power and dignity, were the priests to declare themselves

independent of each other, and consequently dissolve that mighty confederacy which had so long ruled and enjoyed the world. His system of ecclesiastical reformation is, therefore, less remarkable for its effects on the progress of knowledge, than on account of its objects. The aim of his designs was, to obtain for the priesthood, generally, the same kind of influence which the institutes of Loyola, afterwards, so wonderfully ministered to procure for the famous society of the Jesuits. It was calculated to render them entitled to possess superiority, although directed to preserve their exclusive privileges.

Of the Cardinal's services to literature, Mr. Galt gives this glowing account :

' The object of Wolsey was to produce a general effect ; and the history of his patronage of literature relates, in consequence, more to institutions than to men of genius. In this respect, as in his political measures, he differs advantageously from Leo. X. ; but he is not so fortunate in his reputation. His name is not connected with those of poets, historians, and artists ; but how many men, the pride of England, and the ornaments of the species, may trace the origin of their best attainments to the institutions and efforts of Wolsey ! The breadth and solidity of his designs and undertakings for promoting knowledge, entitle him to be placed very high, if not pre-eminent, among the patrons of learning. He was, in the emphatic sense of the term, a Statesman ; and his munificence to literature was not bestowed on individuals, but distributed with a general liberality, for the perpetual benefit of the realm. The mind is disposed to contemplate this part of his policy with unmingled satisfaction ; and notwithstanding the overweening ostentation of his household and deportment, the aim with which he reformed the laws of the Universities, founded colleges, and procured eminent professors to alter the stagnant state of learning, entitles him to be considered as animated by that noble ambition, which has immortality for its motive, the improvement of mankind for its means, and the gratitude of posterity for its reward.'

In a note, the author copies a portrait of the Cardinal at his own table, sketched by Sir Thomas More. It is in his usual lively style, and we cannot pass it over, though Mr. G. calls it caricatured :

' It happened one day, that the Cardinal had, in a great audience, made an oration, wherein he liked himself so well, that at his dinner he sat on thorns till he might hear how they that sat with him might commend it. And when he had sat musing a while, devising, as I thought, upon some pretty proper way to begin ; at last, for the lack of a better, he brought it even bluntly forth, and asked us all how well we liked the oration. But when the problem was once proposed, till it was full answered, no man, I ween, ate one morsel more ; every man fell into so deep a study for the finding of some exquisite praise. For he that should have brought out but a vulgar and a common commendation, would have thought himself shamed for ever. Then said

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we our sentences by row as we sat, from the lowest unto the highest, in good order, as it had been a great matter of the common weal, in a right solemn council. He that sat highest, and was to speak, was a great beneficed man, and not a doctor only, but also somewhat learned indeed in the laws of the church. A wonder it was to see, how he marked every man's word that spake before him; and it seemed that every word the more proper it was, the worse he liked it, for the cumberance he had to study out a better to pass it. The man even swet with labour, so that he was fain in the while to wipe his face."

It does not appear that the Cardinal took any active part in establishing the College of Physicians, and it is here merely stated that he patronized the undertaking; by which, we apprehend, we are to understand that it met with his approbation, and that he gave no obstruction to the design.

Referring again to the obligations conferred on literature by the Cardinal, the author states that

'He was several years minister before he came forward conspicuously as the patron of national instruction. He had been previously the Mæcenas of individuals; but the history of his munificence to literature relates chiefly to public institutions. The character of his mind fitted him to act happily only with wide and prospective considerations. The warmth of his temper, and the pride of conscious greatness, however high his aims, and noble his motives, rendered him harsh in familiar intercourse, and unqualified to acquire the affection of those men of endowment and knowledge whom ostentation invited to his house, and affluence entertained. The court happened to be at Abington in the year 1523, and a deputation of the heads of the colleges, being sent from Oxford to pay the compliments of the University, the Queen was afterwards induced to visit that city, accompanied by Wolsey. They were received with the customary ceremonies; and the Cardinal, in reply to the oration which was addressed to him, declared, that he had the interests of his parental University much at heart, and that he was desirous of substantially evincing his filial attachment. He accordingly proposed to found certain public lectures, and offered to undertake the revisal of the statutes, which were at variance in tenour with one another, and adverse in spirit to the prosperity of learning. These proposals were gladly received. — Cambridge soon after adopted the same measure, and even exceeded Oxford in adulation. The address voted on the occasion declared, that the statutes were submitted to be modelled according to his judgment, as by a true and settled standard; for he was considered as a man sent by a special order of Divine Providence for the benefit of mankind. In order to evince still more the unlimited extent of this confidence, the senate conferred on him the power for life of legislating for the University; and proposed to honour his memory with perpetual yearly commemorations. These acts of homage, in themselves remarkable proofs of the ready subserviency of public bodies to the existing powers, are worthy of observation, as they form an important æra in the history of English literature. From the date of the revisal of the statutes by Cardinal

Wolsey, the progress of popular learning, and the improvement of the language, were rapid and extraordinary in the Universities; in which, prior to that epoch, there was scarcely a member distinguished by any proficiency in practical knowledge. They were inhabited only by men who had dozed into corpulency over the ponderous folios of scholastic divinity; and it was probably less on account of any advantage that was expected to arise to the public from improving her statutes, that Cambridge addressed the Cardinal with such idolatrous adulation, and invested him with such supreme power, than the hope of inducing him to prefer her for the seat of a college, which it was then rumoured he intended to build on a plan of the greatest magnificence. It is, however, but justice to add, that Cambridge very early became a candidate for his patronage; for when he was only Bishop of Lincoln, she offered him her chancellorship, which he declined.'

We have next the measures which were taken by the Cardinal for the purposes of erecting Christ Church College, and the intended Grammar School at Ipswich; designs which were worthy of a more noble ambition, and of having more pure gains applied to them; — which must be allowed to do honour to the projector, and to redeem not a few of his delinquencies and errors. The following is the account which is here given of his literary attainments:

'His acquirements as a scholar were rather proofs of the generality and vigour of his talents, than evidence of the extent of his intellectual powers compared with those of others. The length and fulness of his public dispatches, and the variety of circumstances which he comprehends within the scope of his topics, entitle them to be regarded, in many instances, as dissertations on the events and proceedings of the time. His style, at once powerful, circumstantial, and diffuse, conveys so ample an exposition of his meaning, that he never fails to fill the mind of the reader with a complete conception of what he aims to produce. His sentences are sometimes involved, and often indefinite; but he pours forth such an amazing breadth of explanation, that the general effect is irresistible. In this respect the character of his eloquence may be compared to a large stream flowing through a marshy country; though the main current be clear, impetuous, and strong, the bounds and banks are shoaly, sedgy, unequal, irregular, and undefined.'

Wolsey's merit is certainly very much enhanced, if what is here stated be true, that

'As Lord Chancellor, he had often as much occasion to observe the ignorance of the lawyers, as in his episcopal capacity that of the clergy; and he has been described as often interrupting the pleadings of the barristers, and bitterly animadverting on their want of knowledge. To remedy an evil which troubled the public jurisprudence at the fountain-head, and made its necessary ramifications only so many distributors of disorder and vexation, he projected an institution,

tion, to be founded in London, in which the study of law should be efficiently cultivated. The scheme was consonant to the general liberality of his views, and perhaps is still requisite. The architectural model for the building was considered a master-piece, and remained, long after his death, as a curiosity, in the palace at Greenwich.'

It is difficult to conceive how a mind so immoderately addicted to money, and to empty parade, could harbour and cherish plans so noble and grand as those in which Wolsey engaged for the benefit of posterity; and it excites our wonder, while it gives us a very high opinion of his talents for business, when we find him, incessantly occupied as he must have been, volunteering the reform of University-statutes, and executing the undertaking. These services cannot be too much extolled; nothing is more beneficent, or confers more true glory.

The testimony which is here borne to the Cardinal's judicial merits is in unison with all the historians, and rests on the authority of his excellent successor. It is asserted that in this character he was 'obliged to contend with the opposition, and to endure the obloquy of every rank and class of the nation.' At the period in question, no fixed law prevailed in the Court of Chancery, but the Judges who presided in it paid little regard to precedent or system, and made their decisions conformably to their own notions of equity and justice.

In the subsequent passage, we perceive no allusion to any delinquency, nor indeed to any error or infirmity, of the Cardinal; the language of it is applicable only to a wise, honest, and beneficent minister:

'The grandeur of Wolsey continued to increase until he became possessed of greater power than, perhaps, any subject before his time had ever enjoyed. He was virtually the head of the church in England; prime political minister; the chief judge of law and equity; legislator of the two Universities; arbiter of disputes between the King and foreign princes; and his income was supposed to be equal to the amount of the royal revenues. But the full and perfect round of reflected splendour was destined to wane, and to suffer at last a total extinction. In all the vicissitudes of his master's humours, he had still preserved the first place in his esteem. The clamours of the clergy failed to disturb this unlimited confidence. The impartial justice of his conduct as a judge, though offensive to the pretensions of the nobility, afforded no plausible ground upon which his integrity could be impeached. His views of foreign policy reaching beyond the age in which he lived, and comprehending the interests of posterity, were never popular; far less the financial measures which they led him to adopt; but the success of his plans for advancing the political importance of the nation, gratified the ambition of Henry; and, in those days, public opinion was a trifle in comparison with royal favour. At length, however, the same lofty arrogance of principle

ciple which showed itself so proud and stubborn to the clergy, the nobility, and the people, was to be found at variance with the wishes of the sovereign himself; and it was Wolsey's fate to furnish one of the most striking instances of the instability of fortune, and the ingratitude of despotic power, which the whole compass of history affords.'

The author here expresses himself as if the complaints of the clergy had been without cause: but this is not the fact, and the contrary is elsewhere admitted even in this volume. We should have been glad if Mr. Galt had pointed out the instances in which the Cardinal's *foreign policy* reached beyond the *age in which he lived*, and informed us which of his political acts had for their aim the benefit of posterity. His *financial measures* were not only *unpopular*, but were in some instances daring violations of the constitution, and oppressed the people without being applied to worthy objects; nor are we able to discover which of his plans advanced the political importance of the nation. Did Charles confer pensions on him, did France indemnify him, for such services? We admit that his conduct came to be at variance with the wishes of his sovereign, but we deny that principle had any thing to do with the matter; and we cannot admit that Wolsey's fate was a striking or even *any* instance of the ingratitude of Henry: the ingratitude was on the side of Wolsey: but we grant that he experienced from a justly-offended master a resentment very disproportionate to his offence.

Mr. Galt is evidently incorrect when he states that Henry was not led to think of dissolving his marriage till the year 1557. It is indisputable that the subject engaged his thoughts at a much earlier period; and that, at the time above mentioned, he was taking measures to effect it. On the occasion of his first communication of it to Wolsey, a symptom was visible which foreboded that it would prove fatal to the favourite:

'The Cardinal fell on his knees, and entreated the King to abandon a design so hostile to the faith of which he was the declared champion and defender; especially while the whole structure of the church was rent with schisms, and shaken from roof to foundation by the tempest of the Lutheran controversies. Nor could he omit to point out the political evils of incurring the enmity of the Queen's relations, and the certainty that her nephew the Emperor would violently endeavour to revenge the insult which the proceeding would be to his family. But Henry was not to be persuaded from his resolution: he insisted upon knowing Wolsey's opinion of the abstract question. The Cardinal, in order to gain time, and possibly with a hope that some accident might occur to alter the King's mind, begged that, in a matter of such importance, he might be allowed to confer, previously, with persons better versed in the Divine and civil laws. A request so reasonable was readily granted.'

Our readers will recollect that a bull was obtained from the Pope, authorizing Wolsey and Cardinal Campeggio to hold a court in England in order to decide on the validity of the King's marriage; and that, accordingly, these two persons held a court for that purpose. In the extract which we subjoin, a just idea of Wolsey is given, and a clue may be found to his behaviour; which, as stated by some writers, appears to have in it something mysterious. He ought to have declined sitting on a commission to try a cause in which his sovereign was a party, and his former pretensions imposed on him an impartiality which that sovereign would ill brook: but such was his insuperable vanity, that he could forego nothing which was connected with parade and state, although it was obvious that the situation would prove very difficult and dangerous, if not fatal.

‘ If the Cardinal was of opinion at first, that the validity of the marriage ought not to be called in question, the case was materially altered when the King's doubts had become publicly known, and were communicated to his subjects. It then became his duty to bring the matter to a speedy issue, and to hasten proceedings which involved the legitimacy of the royal offspring, and which, in the event of the king's premature death, might again entail on the nation the miseries of a disputed succession. As a prince of the church, he was bound to maintain the papal authority, by an undeviating adherence to every canon and formality in the course of a process of such importance. He is, therefore, in the progress of the divorce, to be regarded as acting in a double capacity, as the minister of the King and of the Pope. To both he was bound to act with fidelity. The service of the one was contrary to the interests of the other. His situation was extraordinary, and his difficulties without a precedent. He was placed in a situation where his honesty had the effect of making him equally offensive to both parties; and integrity, almost necessarily, exposed him to the suspicion of partiality and equivocation.’

The court had been sitting a considerable time, had summoned the august parties, and they had appeared: the Queen had declined the jurisdiction, and appealed to Rome: but still the court proceeded to hear evidence; all was in readiness for a decision; and a day had been appointed in which it was universally understood that judgment would be pronounced, when the King, and the nobility and great men of the land, attended in the full expectation of hearing it. On this occasion, however, Campeggio, to the astonishment of all who were present, adjourned the court to a distant day:

‘ Indignant at such a proceeding, the Duke of Suffolk broke out into a violent passion, and, vehemently striking his hand upon the table, swore by the mass, that he saw it was true what was commonly said, that “ never Cardinal did good in England.” Wolsey, conceiving the insinuation to be directed against him,

him, said, in a sedate emphatic manner: "Sir, of all men in this realm you have the least cause to disparage cardinals; for if poor I had not been, you would not now have had a head on your shoulders to talk so contemptuously of us, who neither meant you harm, nor have given you cause to be offended. I would have you to know, my Lord, that I and my brother wish the King as much happiness, and the nation as much honour, wealth, and peace, as you or any other subject whatsoever, and would as gladly gratify all his lawful desires. But, my Lord, what would you do, if you were one of the King's commissioners in a foreign country, intrusted with the investigation of a solemn and dubious affair; would you not consult with his Majesty before you finished the business? I doubt not but you would. Therefore, repress your malice. Consider we are commissioners, and for a time cannot proceed to judgment, without the knowledge of him from whom our authority is derived. Nor can we do more or less than our commission allows; and he that will be offended with us on this account is not a wise man. Pacify yourself, my Lord, and speak with discretion like a man of honour, or hold your tongue. Speak not reproachfully of your friends. The friendship that I have shewn you, and which before I never mentioned, you well know." The King, in the mean time, comforted himself with more moderation than could have been expected from his impetuous temper. He manifested no particular displeasure, but still the ruin of Wolsey was considered inevitable.'

The favourite is now moving in a different direction from the King, and is a lost man: unless all his faculties forsook him, he must have anticipated his disgrace.

The duties which the pretensions to the tiara imposed on Wolsey do not present themselves to the author, any more than they did to Henry, till the present juncture arises; although they, as well as the bribes and pensions, had their effect on many of the previous transactions in which the Cardinal had been concerned. No prince less devoted to Rome, and less negligent of his duty and his dignity, than Henry, would have for a moment tolerated this puerile but pernicious ambition in his minister.

It is strange that Wolsey, although aware of Campeggio's intention to adjourn the court, never acquainted the King with that design. In the whole course of the cause, the English Cardinal had suffered Campeggio to have the entire management of it, and had deferred to him in every thing relating to it, although Campeggio was his junior. Henry had begun to suspect that, in the dispatches transmitted by Wolsey respecting the divorce, he evinced a greater degree of anxiety for the interests of the church, than for those of his sovereign. From so determined a candidate for the papacy, this was to be expected, though it would inevitably call forth the displeasure of a Prince less unreasonable and capricious than Henry. — We object to the introduction

introduction of the terms *honesty* and *integrity* into this passage : these unpretending and homely qualities Wolsey did not much affect : but if they weighed little with the ambitious Cardinal, he had not lost sight of the high pretensions which he had made ; he was aware of what was expected from a candidate for the triple crown ; he did not forget what, in this emergency, he owed to his character ; and he could not offer an insult or shew even the shadow of disrespect to that church, to be the head of which he had so recently aspired ; for, unfortunately, even while the divorce was proceeding, on the occasion of a sudden illness and of a subsequent relapse of Clement, Wolsey had with great activity renewed his claims to the papacy. Had the Cardinal at this moment been in any manner wanting in respect to the authority of the church, and had he betrayed its interests even to gratify the wishes of his sovereign, he would have covered himself with ignominy, and been regarded by the whole Catholic world as the last of mankind. By accepting the present commission, therefore, he had placed himself in a situation, in which he must either make an ungrateful return to a bountiful master, or he would destroy at once his fondest hopes, belie the whole tenor of his life, and render himself the most degraded of his species. If it was not much the custom of Wolsey to interrogate principle, or to deliberate about what *honesty* and *integrity* required of him, he had spirit enough to avoid the infamy in which a compliance with Henry's expectations would have involved him. He feels the absolute necessity of firmly abiding by pretensions which Henry had been absurd enough to sanction ; he resolutely shuns the last degradation ; and who is there that will not applaud the consistency, rather than censure the ingratitude ? He soon pays the penalty of indulging an insane ambition, and of engaging in incongruous designs ; and if the King complained of the returns made to him, he might thank his own folly for them. It was the pursuit of the pontificate which proved the ruin of Wolsey. The crescent was as much within his reach as the tiara. Suppose for a moment that he obtained it ; to whom must he have been indebted for it ? To Charles, the rival of his master, the known enemy of the independence of Europe. What figure, moreover, would he have made in a scene in which he was altogether a stranger ? He would not have known how to conduct himself when raised to this giddy eminence, but must have acted under the guidance of some one or more of his courtiers, and would have been inferior in all that gives real importance and consideration to the meanest individual about his person. He would have been an alien in his own court, the sport of those who in appearance prostrated themselves before him, and having nothing to cheer and console

console him but mere nominal grandeur. In short, he would have resembled a senseless idol, that was mocked by the grimaces of contumelious worshippers. Nothing can be imagined less calculated to answer the ends of ambition, or to administer happiness. Had Wolsey been possessed of a really great mind, he would have spurned the lure, and would never have wished for aught beyond the station to which his sovereign had raised him. Such a course, it is true, did not lead to spiritual supremacy : but, as his rare fortune had placed him at the helm of Europe, he might have exercised a civil primacy, and might have had dependent on his will, and obedient to his wishes, the potentate whose place he aspired to fill. At the time in question, and for ages preceding it, the first ministers of the European sovereigns had been for the most part churchmen ; and it had frequently happened that such favoured persons were complimented by the Pope with the purple : but they never sought to render that character efficient, nor indulged the hope of ascending the papal throne ; nor (we repeat) would any sovereign but Henry have suffered such a design to be harboured by a confidential servant.

From this time, we see Wolsey rapidly hastening to the close of his career ; and the conduct of the discarded favourite is as inconsistent with a great mind, as the insolence of his prosperous days. Mr. Galt ascribes loftiness to Wolsey, and he certainly had an ample share of that quality : but it entirely forsook him on this occasion, and fallen fortunes never overtook a more feeble mind, or rendered a spirit more broken. It must, however, be owned that, under the semblance of shewing mercy, the cup of adversity was in the highest degree embittered to the discarded minister. Some writers have ascribed this semblance to real tenderness on the part of Henry, which they suppose to have arisen from some lurking remains of regard for his former favourite : while by others, with more reason,

‘ Henry himself has been suspected of sanctioning this cruelty from a vicious principle of policy, in the expectation, that as Wolsey disregarded popular clamour, he might, for the restoration of his grandeur, not scruple to sustain even the obloquy of the Roman consistory by pronouncing the sentence of divorce. But he ought to have known his lofty character better ; and that the love of fame, which renders public men incorruptible, though nearly allied to the love of power and splendour, never admits rank into comparison with reputation. The treatment which the Cardinal received, wounded without irritating. The eagerness with which his former associates endeavoured to rise on his ruins, — the neglect of those who had shared his bounty, — the abortive assurances that he had received from the King, — and the conviction that, without being restored to favour, he never could be able to contradict the wilful misrepresentation, which was daily made, of his purest intentions, but must transmit a blemished
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and defaced character to posterity, — corroded his feelings to such a degree, that his life was despaired of.'

The incensed Henry, who from being the *defender* had become the fierce assailant *of the faith* of the church of Rome, judging of others by himself, might expect that Wolsey, to gratify him, would prove a traitor to that community of which he had always been a zealous supporter: but Wolsey did not on this occasion belie his former professions as a churchman; the subservient minister was lost in the aspirant to the chair of St. Peter; and the favourite is never seen, but is throughout the delegate of the sovereign Pontiff. Royal favour, his place, his fortune, and his life, are sacrificed at the shrine of consistency. In this instance only, as far as we can discover, is Wolsey truly and indisputably great. In the situation, he could not have acted otherwise: but he might and ought to have declined so critical a trust. We still think, however, that, if the hope of the pontificate had never entered into the contemplation of Wolsey, he was too much the victim of avarice, and too much occupied by the frivolities of shew and pomp, to have borne the part of a great and beneficent minister.

From such a man as Henry, nothing that accorded with justice and moderation was to be expected. When we consider that he had been in a manner the cause of the delinquencies of Wolsey, and a party to them, — and that, though heinous, they were not of a nature to be brought forwards as crimes, — his displeasure ought to have been appeased by a dismissal of the Cardinal from his various employments, by a partial confiscation of his property, and by confining him to his see, and enjoining on him the edification of his flock. Here Wolsey ought to have been allowed to spend the remainder of his days, in peace and tranquility. Yet we see him meet with a treatment so disproportionate to his offences; his implacable enemies act a part so malicious; they are so ingenious in harassing him, so systematically aggravate his sufferings, and subject him to such exquisite mental torture; that the fallen minister, with all his aggravated faults and failings, becomes an object of compassion. — The author thus sums up his character :

‘ If it be true that no man by less effort ever attained so much dignity as Cardinal Wolsey, few have been thrown down from so great a height under the imputation of smaller crimes. He was undoubtedly a character of the most splendid class. Haughty, ambitious, masterly, and magnificent, he felt himself formed for superiority; and his conduct, if not always judicious, was uniformly great. His exterior was dignified, his demeanour courtly, his discernment

ernment rapid, his eloquence commanding, and his comprehension vast and prospective. The number, variety, and magnitude of his public trusts, in all of which he was eminently distinguished, are proofs of the elastic powers of his mind, and the versatility of his talents for business. His avidity to amass wealth was contrasted with an expenditure so generous, that it lost the name of avarice, and deserved to be dignified with that of ambition. His ostentation was so richly blended with munificence and hospitality, that it ought to be ascribed rather to the love of distinction than to vanity; and his pride was so nearly allied to honour and justice, that it seemed to be essential to his accomplishments as a statesman. All his undertakings showed the combining and foreseeing faculties of his genius. The league of London was the grand fundamental charter, by which the European nations recovered their independence from the Pope; and the change in the alliance of England after the battle of Pavia, was one of those rare and bold measures, which may divide the opinion of the world, as to their wisdom, but must command its admiration. The principle of that change, having its foundation in the league of London, was to preserve the equilibrium of Europe; and if consistency be essential to character, and character be strength as applied to nations, the dignity of England was obviously more advanced by adhering to her principles, than her power would have been augmented, by continuing the partnership of war with Charles. The Cardinal's system for the reformation of the clergy, though defective in philosophy, was singularly liberal in policy; for statesmen are often by official necessity rather the protectors than the enemies of corruption. It is true that he did not calculate on all that flood of consequences which may be traced to his measures, but it could not have arisen from undertakings more partial. Therefore, whether estimated by his natural endowments, his fortune, or his designs, Wolsey must be considered as one of those great occasional men, who, at distant intervals, suddenly appear, surprizing the world by their movements and their splendour; and who, having agitated and altered the regular frame of society by their influence, are commemorated as the epochal characters of history.

Our limits will not permit us to dispute the paradoxes which are here crowded together; nor is it very necessary that this task should be accomplished. The positions here advanced are in direct opposition to the clearest evidence, founded on indisputable facts; from which, conclusions very opposite to those of Mr. Galt have been unanimously drawn by the whole series of our historians, supported in our days by a Hume, a Robertson, and a Henry.

If the reader be already acquainted with this part of our history, and on his guard against the heresies here attempted to be imposed on him, he will find in this volume much to amuse and instruct him. The sentiments of the author are liberal, his views are enlarged, and he is not wanting in ingenuity:

but to give plausibility to the positions which he has chosen to hazard and defend, no talents, acquirements, or skill, can be of any avail. If, moreover, we have been pleased with the spirit of the performance, with the sentiments of the author, and with the proofs which it furnishes of a good understanding and general intelligence, we have been disappointed at not finding more of the fruits of research, and a greater stock of particulars. In a professed life of Wolsey, we conceive that we were warranted to have this expectation fulfilled.

Occasional hints, which appear in the course of the present volume, induce us to believe that Mr. Galt is a member of a very large and flourishing sect, who regard a late famed minister as heaven-born. In some instances, he seems inclined, but does not venture, to assimilate this personage to his incomparable and immaculate Wolsey: but to the mediocrity in foreign politics, which we assign to Wolsey, we cannot admit that the personage in question made even a near approach. From the commencement of the revolutionary scenes among our neighbours, to the day of Mr. Pitt's death, (the period in which alone, with the exception of a short inter-regnum, he had any occasion to exhibit the foreign minister,) not a single transaction occurs that will admit of being compared with the conduct adopted by Wolsey towards the fugitive King of Denmark; of which an account under his own hand has reached us, and is inserted in the Appendix to this volume. No person will peruse that document without entertaining a very high idea of the comprehensive mind of the writer, of his political prudence, and of his profound insight into the nature and principles of government; nor without applauding the liberality of his notions, and the manliness which could lead him to avow them.

ART. VI. *Outlines of a Plan of Finance*; proposed to be submitted to Parliament. 1813. 8vo. pp. 42. 2s. 6d. Hatchard.

ART. VII. *An Inquiry concerning the Rise and Progress, the Redemption and present State, and the Management of the National Debt of Great Britain*. By Robert Hamilton, LL.D., F.R.S.E. Professor of Natural Philosophy in the Marischal College and University of Aberdeen. 8vo. pp. 212. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

ART. VIII. *Substance of the Speech of W. Huskisson, Esq., in the House of Commons, in a Committee of the whole House, upon the Resolutions proposed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, respecting the State of the Finances and the Sinking Fund of Great Britain, on Thursday the 25th of March 1813*. 8vo. pp. 80. 3s. Murray.

THE subject of Finance possesses so few attractions, that the public are in general satisfied with the transient impressions

sions conveyed by the newspaper-reports of speeches, or by a cursory perusal of those legislative "Resolutions" which usually contain the substance of official plans. On the present occasion, however, a larger share of attention is demanded. The operation of our Sinking-fund, — the pillar, in the current opinion, of our public stocks, — has been new-modelled ; and it happens, by a singular coincidence, that one of the few treatises on finance, which deserve a permanent reputation, has come forth precisely at the time when ministers found it expedient to bring forwards their late regulations. That this coincidence is not the effect of concert is sufficiently apparent from the tenor of Dr. Hamilton's book, and from the unceremonious style in which he treats the favourite arrangements of our most admired financiers. Yet his principles are directly applicable to the new project, and assist the inquirer in throwing off much of the mystery in which, whether from design or from inattention, it is veiled in the ministerial expositions.

In entering on the examination of this subject, it may be proper to apprise our readers that we are very far from deeming it practicable to invest a disquisition on finance with any of those charms which serve to beguile attention in the discussion of lighter topics. We can promise them nothing but an attention to perspicuity, and an anxious wish to be instrumental in correcting some of the popular exaggerations which prevail with regard to the magical operation of compound interest. It has long been our opinion that a debt, whether public or private, could be discharged only in two ways ; by the payment of an equivalent, or by the injury of the creditor. Schemes of liquidating our national incumbrances, by sinking-funds, appeared to us nothing else than a transfer of money from one hand to another ; a transfer capable, by the mode of its arrangement, of becoming an engine for keeping up the price of stock, but wholly insufficient to lessen our debt without a correspondent drain from our productive capital. The idea which had occurred to us in the shape of general reasoning has been elucidated by Dr. Hamilton with the perspicuity of arithmetical illustration. After all the praises lavished on our sinking-fund, and after the opponents of Mr. Pitt had joined almost with one voice in extolling this far-famed measure, it will startle a great part of the public to find this object of national admiration successfully assailed by an individual in private life, whose days appear to have been passed at rather more than a respectful distance from the precincts of the Exchequer and the Stock-Exchange. We cannot, perhaps, anticipate for the learned author any great share of popular favour, since it would be a much pleasanter thing for the community to imagine that the sinking-fund operates by some wonder-

wonderfully ingenious and beneficial contrivance, than to sit down with the dry and unprofitable conclusion that we have been, all along, doing nothing more than giving one equivalent for another. It is true, (if the truth must be spoken,) that, while we have been paying with one hand twelve or thirteen millions a-year, we have been borrowing twenty in another : but the latter part of the tale is seldom told, and we have been long taught to fix our thoughts on a time at which the accumulated product of our sinking-fund should effect a diminution, by wholesale, in the national burdens. In such a state of things, this unfeeling philosopher of the north may lay his account with severe expostulations for labouring to dispel the gratifying anticipation;—and here we cannot help remarking the discrepancy which exists between men who are not only educated in the same part of the world, but who follow, or profess to follow, a kindred course of study. Sir John Sinclair is a countryman of Dr. Hamilton, and, like him, a political arithmetician ; yet how widely do his estimates and conclusions differ from those of the Professor ! Sir John produced, with a happy fluency, not only argument on argument, but axiom on axiom, to prove that the stoppage of cash-payments was a public benefit, and to humble the Bullion-committee to the dust. Lord Sheffield, too, poured forth a display of oratory, both in parliament and in print, to demonstrate the excellence of our Orders in Council. These men are “ wise in their generation,” and both received their reward at the hands of a discerning ministry ; his Lordship being honoured with the rank of privy counsellor ; while Sir John, notwithstanding his approbation of “ *Lycurgus* and of his iron-money,” condescended to accept the office of Receiver of the land-tax for Scotland. We have yet to learn that any of this pleasing attention has been shewn to such writers as the author of the ‘ *Inquiry into the Management of our National Debt.*’

We shall divide our discussion of this subject into the following parts :

- I. Observations on the general Principles of Finance.
- II. ————— on our Public Stocks.
- III. ————— on the Sinking-Fund.
- IV. ————— on Mr. Vansittart's New Plan.

I. *Principles of Finance.*—Under this head we shall endeavour to direct the ideas of our readers to a few fundamental rules, by the application of which, the merits of a financial plan may be estimated without going into the endless detail of arithmetical calculation. National income, as Dr. Hamilton remarks, can arise from no other source than the produce

of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. The greater part of it must go to provide the people with the necessities and comforts of life; and it is the remainder only that can be applicable to public purposes. Taxes, it is affirmed by many, are harmless, and in some respects even useful. It is also fashionable to consider them as a spur to industry; a point which, in the opinion of several very competent judges, may be safely left to the desire, inherent in us all, of bettering our circumstances: but, in analyzing the progress of public improvements, we shall find that they have been often retarded and seldom or never accelerated by taxation. Next, as to the extent of taxation, though many seem to think that its limits are almost indefinite, nothing is clearer than that, when carried beyond a certain point, it lessens consumption, and becomes comparatively unproductive. These persons forget, likewise, that, by the depreciation of money, our revenue may have doubled in a term of twenty-five years, without going farther than its *moiety* formerly reached in defraying public expences; and it is not generally known that increasing taxes form one of the most powerful causes of this unfortunate depreciation.

Another topic, on which a considerable difference of opinion exists, is the question, "how far the national debt is a public misfortune?" Dr. Hamilton has treated this point at some length. He very prudently declines, however, to enter the lists with those hopeful disputants who maintain that this debt constitutes a part of our national wealth; and he does not bestow much time on those who consider a public bankruptcy as a happy expedient for the restoration of our finances. He proceeds to examine how far the circumstance of having our countrymen for our creditors affords an alleviation of the burden of the debt; and, in admitting that the stock-holder bears a part of the taxes raised for the payment of his interest, he contends that the greater share of the burden still falls on the industrious.

'It is argued by those who still retain the generally exploded opinions concerning money, that all the money raised in taxes, at least all that comes to the stock-holder, is spent among those who pay it, and that therefore it is no loss to them. As well might a person forcibly enter a merchant's house, and take away his money, and tell him he did him no injury, for the money or part of it would be employed in purchasing the commodities he dealt in, upon which he would receive a profit.'

We come next to the important question of the method of discovering effectual remedies for a diseased state of finance. These must consist in a prolongation of the periods of peace, in a reduction of war-expences, or in the unpalatable alternative

native of increase of taxation. On the first topic, Dr. H. remarks:

'If nations could derive wisdom from past experience, and from the judgment which is formed of many former wars, now that the passions which excited them are subsided, much might be urged in favour of a pacific system. It will be admitted that we have frequently engaged in war for trivial or unattainable objects—that the objects have generally not been attained—that, under pretence of guarding against distant and improbable dangers, we have incurred present and imminent ones—that passion and national pride, rather than rational views of national interest, have been often the ruling principles of our public conduct—that, as we have engaged in war rashly, we have persevered in it with obstinacy, and rejected offers of pacification, more favourable than those which we were afterwards under the necessity of accepting.'

Without applying any of these downright epithets to the existing contest, the Professor observes that the judgment formed of the measures of the present day, by posterity, may possibly be as little favourable to our prudence in persisting in them, as the sentence which we, on our part, are ready to pass on the discretion of our ancestors. Were we, however, doomed to continue at war, the only alternative would be an increase of taxes; since excess of revenue above expenditure, whether arising from economy in peace or from large imposts in war, is the only real sinking-fund for the discharge of our debt; and for any effectual relief to arise from the operation of compound interest, we shall look in vain. Without our denying the abstract truth that a sum increasing by compound interest will, in progress of time, attain a surprising magnitude, the calculations of theory will be found to give way in a succession of generations, as they have always done, before the mutability of human measures. Moreover, however steadily we may persevere in the plan of the sinking-fund, its operation cannot outweigh the effects of so expensive a war-system as we have followed during the last century. Let us keep in remembrance that the progressive accumulation of debt, at compound interest, would advance in the same ratio, and arrive eventually at as large an amount, as its counterpart in the shape of a fund of liquidation. The arithmetical principle is the same on both sides of the account; it operates as much against us as for us. We prevent, it may be said, its operation on the debtor-side, by making regular payments of interest: but is not the money, which is drawn from the people to supply this interest, a diminution of the productive power of national capital? It must be taken from *some* fund, and its absence operates to prevent a portion of our capital from re-

ceiving that progressive increase of which compound interest affords so clear an illustration. It may be replied that the money returns into circulation through the medium of the public creditor : but this circumstance, when closely analyzed, is found to be nothing more than a balance to the evil of raising the yearly interest by taxes ; that is, it is just as pernicious to the public, in a calculating view, to pay the interest regularly, as to leave it to accumulate. Whichever course we take, we are forced to arrive at the conclusion that public debt, once contracted, is an absolute and permanent loss. It is, as Mr. Huskisson confesses, (Speech, p. 40.) ' the record of so much wealth consumed ;' and it is in vain to think of making it good, otherwise than by an *equivalent sacrifice* in another quarter.

While, however, on the score of calculation, the annual payment of interest is as unprofitable to the public as the accumulation of debt in a compound ratio, we are far from accounting it the same in a *moral* point of view. In that sense, it is good for a government, as for an individual, to be held to a regular payment of the interest of money borrowed. It keeps alive in our recollection the aid which we have received, and the price which we pay for it ; and it impresses on us the necessity of setting bounds to expenditure, as well as of limiting those schemes of speculative enterprize which the ruler of a country frequently shares with the most visionary of his subjects.

II. *Our Public Stocks*.—At the commencement of our national debt, in the reign of King William, the legal rate of interest was 6 per cent. ; and the reduction to 5 per cent. took place in 1714. Since that time, government has limited, by the strong arm of the law, the rate of interest in private transactions, but has not unfrequently exceeded the prescribed ratio in its own dealings. This excess, however, is less apparent to the public eye, since it has become the practice, particularly during the last thirty years, to give the loan-contractor an equivalent in the 3 or 4 per cents. The plain course for government, in conformity with the spirit of the law, would be to give 100l., 5 per cent. stock, for 100l. in money, and to render the debt redeemable, like any private debt, *at par* ; that is, by paying back the 100l. money in return for the stock, whenever our finances admitted of the reimbursement : but our recent policy has been to flatter the stock-holder not merely with a secure interest, but with an expectation of rise in the value of the principal. The law has put it out of the power of ministers to redeem 3 or 4 per cent. stock at a price proportioned to the redemption-rate of the 5 per cents. The

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act of parliament says merely that "stock is redeemable at par;" that is, although the commissioners of the sinking-fund may make partial extinctions of stock at the market-price, there can be no comprehensive reduction, on the part of government, without giving a price equivalent or nearly equivalent to the extravagant rate of 100l. in money for 100l. 3 or 4 per cent. stock. The practical result is a kind of necessity on the part of government to repay nearly 140l. or 150l. for every 100l. borrowed; because peace, which is the season for extensive repayments, is likewise the season for a high price of stock. Previously to the last war, viz. in 1792, the 3 per cents. had risen to 98; a rate which the commissioners of the sinking-fund would, in the event of its recurrence, be obliged to pay in the same way as other purchasers.

As a counterpoise to this pernicious anomaly, Dr. Hamilton recommends an adherence to the plain principle that, in creating stock, government should render itself liable for nothing beyond the sum actually borrowed. If, in consequence, it be necessary to give the loan-contractor a higher rate of interest than 5 per cent., the excess may be granted in the shape of a long annuity; a method by which the loss to the public would evidently be less than by the dangerous contingency involved in the present system. The distinctive feature of a long annuity is that it becomes eventually extinguished without the payment of a full equivalent on the part of the public. Individuals in many situations attach nearly as much value to an annuity for eighty, ninety, or one hundred years, as to a perpetuity. The lapse of such a period is obviously a matter of more consideration to private persons, than to a nation whose financial measures should be founded on a reference to permanency. It is on this principle that Mr. George Crawford has laboured, in his "Doctrine of Equivalents," to persuade our financiers to deal out long annuities to our loan-contractors, in lieu of permanent stock. How far the measure would be susceptible of *general* application seems very doubtful: but, in a *partial* manner, it has already been adopted by several of our financiers. They have, at different times, borrowed sums, of which the collective amount is such as to require a yearly payment in long annuities to the amount of somewhat more than a million; and it has been so managed that these different annuities should all terminate at a common period, viz. in the year 1860.

Having mentioned a material advantage enjoyed by stock-holder in the mode of receiving reimbursement, now to notice a consideration of equal magnitude in the opposite scale. The progressive fall in the value of money
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together in favour of the debtor, and against the creditor. In the course of the last thirty years, stock, like other money-property, has fallen to half its value in the purchase of the necessaries and comforts of life: but taxes have by no means shared this unfortunate depreciation; their produce, in many respects, like the rent of houses and land, having risen, in numerical amount, in proportion to the fall in the value of money. The debt of government is thus the same, while the means of discharging it have considerably increased. To judge from appearances, the fall in the value of money is by no means at a pause; and its practical result is to give a great facility to government in liquidating the national debt by means of an unintended injury to the stock-holder.

We add a few farther remarks on our public stocks, by way of familiarizing our readers with finance-calculations. A loan-contractor, though he advances his money by instalments, at different intervals of the current year, is allowed interest on the whole, nearly as if he had paid it down at once; and a suitable discount is granted on any part of the covenanted sum which he finds it convenient to pay before the stipulated instalment-days. These, however, are merely official modifications, and make in fact no difference to the public: but they are noticed here because they must be taken into account in computing the *bonus*, or premium, which it is always necessary to pay to the loan-contractors. Another point worth mentioning is that the transactions relative to our national debt, such as transfers of stock, payment of half-yearly dividends, &c., take place, not at the Exchequer, but at the Bank of England; and for this agency, government pay the Bank, by agreement, a certain annual rate on each million of stock. Before 1786 this rate was 56*l.* 10*s.*:—in 1786 Mr. Pitt obtained its reduction to 45*l.*:—and in 1808, in consideration of the multiplied profits of the Bank at the hands of the public, the rate was farther reduced to 34*l.* Having premised these particulars, we proceed to a few observations on the nature and progress of the sinking-fund.

III. *The Sinking-fund.*—Although indebted for its extension and flourishing condition to Mr. Pitt, this fund did not, as many persons imagine, originate with that minister. Sir Robert Walpole, so long ago as 1716, not only commenced a plan of ~~was~~ description, but persevered in it for some time with considerable firmness. He derived the supplies for it partly from mere taxes, and partly from a more acceptable source, the in the attendant on reductions in the interest of the national power. In those days, however, our ministers held the public property by a much weaker tenure than that which Mr. Pitt possessed,

possessed ; and on the occurrence of extraordinary demands, in the year 1733, a trespass was made on the inviolability of the sinking-fund, by taking a part of this sacred reserve for the current expences of the year. The principle once infringed, there was no limit to subsequent transgressions. Year after year, the resources of the sinking-fund were appropriated to other purposes, and its operations in the reduction of debt became comparatively insignificant. Dr. Price, writing in 1772, computed that it had not, in the preceding half-century, paid off above twenty millions ; and, in the *Outlines* of Mr. Vansittart's plan, we are told (p. 1.) that its operation was in fact greatly below this qualified report. At last, in 1786, Mr. Pitt, encouraged by the rapid growth of national wealth after the peace with France, determined to give a bolder and more permanent character to the constitution of the sinking-fund. He perceived that it was the only arrangement by which the public could be flattered with the hope of an eventual discharge of their debt, or by which a minister could keep up the price of stock so as to obtain future loans on any thing like tolerable terms. The basis of Mr. Pitt's plan was a reliance on the power of compound interest ; a power which was portrayed to him and to the nation by Dr. Price, with all the zeal of an enthusiastic calculator. Whether Mr. Pitt was aware of the real nature of the sinking-fund, or was inspired with a part of the fanciful expectations of the reverend author, we do not pretend to determine. Ministers are proverbial for holding forth the fair side of measures : but, at the period in question, Mr. Pitt was young, little prepared by previous education for habits of accurate calculation, and prevented by endless details of office from giving a continued attention to an intricate course of reasoning.

In point of fundamental principle, Mr. Pitt's sinking-fund was little more than a revival of the Walpolian plan : but a difference consisted in the provision of larger funds, and in the additional precautions taken to secure the inviolability of their appropriation. A special board of commissioners was appointed, and was rendered independent not merely of the Treasury, but, in several respects, of Parliament. Mr. Pitt having classed together the various taxes under the general name of consolidated-fund, it was agreed that a million should be taken annually from this fund, and vested in the commissioners for the redemption of the national debt. The money at the disposal of the latter was to be farther augmented by lapsed annuities ; and by the *interest of the discharged debt* until the sum applicable to the purpose of liquidation should amount to four millions annually. Six years of peace and of flourishing commerce followed this measure, and our revenue ex-

perienced a progressive increase, which many good-natured persons among us were ready to ascribe to the financial arrangements of government. In the year 1792, Mr. Pitt, calculating probably on a renewal of war, determined to meet the expected shocks on public credit by a new measure in aid of the sinking-fund. This was no other than an act to provide, on every new loan, taxes to the extent of one per cent. of its nominal amount, as a separate sinking-fund for the eventual repayment of this particular loan; and it was computed that the product of these taxes, increased by the operation of compound interest, would liquidate each loan in less than forty-five years. Though this plan was open in fact to the same objections as the former, it was well adapted to support public confidence; and it has accordingly been continued, with little variation, throughout the successive budgets of the last and the present war.

In 1802, the Addington-ministry, finding it expedient to repeal the income-tax, chose to accompany the measure with certain arrangements, which bore the appearance of giving additional strength to the sinking-fund: but these, being matters of official regulation, need not be recapitulated; and a similar silence is applicable to Lord Henry Petty's finance-plan, because it was not eventually followed up in practice.

The general indignation excited by Bonaparte's usurpations, and the alacrity of the public in the war, having empowered ministers to impose large war-taxes in 1803, 4, and 6, the stocks were kept up in price; the sinking-fund was permitted to increase in the ratio of compound interest; and, during several years, our loans were comparatively small, and our revenue was fast approaching to the amount of our annual expenditure. Accordingly, government was enabled to go on without trying the hazardous experiment of new taxes in seasons of unpopularity. The session of 1809, in which their authority was impaired by the circumstances connected with the investigation concerning the Duke of York, and that of 1810, when similar discredit was produced by the Walcheren inquiry, were thus allowed to pass over without any demand on the public purse. In the next year came the successes of Lord Wellington; and most opportune were they for the support of our national credit, as the expensive contest in Spain and the defalcation of revenue at home, consequent on the Orders in Council, had sunken the price of stock, and threatened a renewal of former difficulties. The lapse of another year served but to make matters worse, and the terms of the loan of the summer of 1812 will prove a lasting monument of the condition to which an injudicious interference with trade had reduced our finances. At length a change took place, and ministers discovered that there might

might be wisdom in other measures than those of uninterrupted war. To this change, and still more to the necessity of the case, we are disposed to ascribe the recent alteration in the management of the sinking-fund.

Before we enter on an examination of the particular features of Mr. Vansittart's plan, it will be useful to advert to the observations of Dr. Hamilton on the general nature of a sinking-fund. Dr. Price maintained that the "inviolable appropriation of a specific sum, operating in war and in peace, was a measure of the utmost consequence; that the effects of such a system were far superior to those of any other application of a surplus; in short, that the operation of compound interest might be termed almost omnipotent." What a contrast between these sanguine terms and the cool reasoning of Dr. H.!

'In opposition to Dr. Price's doctrine, it is maintained that the separation of a sinking fund from a general revenue is a measure of no efficacy whatever: that in time of war, when the expenditure exceeds the revenue, the preservation of the sinking-fund, and consequent increase of loans, is a system from which no advantage can arise: if it could be conducted without expence, it would be nugatory; as it is necessarily attended with expence, it is pernicious: that at the conclusion of a war, any surplus revenue applied for the discharge of debt during the subsequent peace, operates by compound interest, during the continuance of peace: but the notion of uniting that period to another period of peace, or to a still longer period of alternate war and peace, in order to obtain the powerful effect of compound interest acting for a great length of time, is illusory.'—

'The Doctor's plan for discharging the national debt by borrowing money at simple interest, in order to improve it at compound interest, is, we apprehend, completely delusive. He admits the absurdity of such a measure in private life,—and its absurdity in national finance is exactly the same. The cases differ only in extent of sum, and duration of time, which *no ways* alter the general tendency of the measure. Suppose a million borrowed for this purpose, and assigned to commissioners for the redemption of the national debt, in whose hands it operates by compound interest. The interest of this loan is 50,000*l.*, which must either be provided for by some additional tax, or saved by some measure of public economy; or if neither of these be adopted, an additional loan must be made next year to pay the interest. In the former case, it is the tax or the economy, and not the operation described, that benefits the revenue; and they would have produced the same effect by affording an additional surplus improved at compound interest, without any loan. In the latter case, 50,000*l.* is borrowed the second year; and a sum equal to the interest of both loans, or 52,500*l.*, the third year; and thus the debt accumulates by compound interest against the public, exactly to the same extent that the money vested in the hands of the commissioners, accumulates in its favour.'—

'The price of stock, like that of any commodity, depends on the proportion of supply and demand. Whatever sums are brought into the

the money market, and applied by the commissioners for the purchase of stock; equal sums are withdrawn from the money market, by the additional loans required to replace what is invested in the hands of the commissioners.

If, therefore, the sinking-fund be nothing more than a transfer from hand to hand, it remains to inquire how far it is worth the expence of keeping up. It avowedly increases the amount of our loans, and the public sustains a loss equal to the *bonus* paid on the additional sum borrowed.

Without reckoning the expence of the commission for the redemption of the national debt, (which has in fact been very moderate,) Dr. H. computes, after a variety of calculations, (p. 142. *et seq.*) that the loss caused to the public by Mr. Pitt's sinking-fund amounts to a sum of nearly *sixteen millions*. The plan adopted in 1792, of adding a fund, in taxes, of one per cent. to the nominal capital of every loan, experiences a similar accusation. The Professor does not object to the imposition of more taxes than are required by the interest of a loan, but he contends that they should be differently appropriated. 'The sum of surplus-taxes, instead of being made over to the sinking-fund, should form,' he says, (p. 154.) 'a deduction at once from the amount of the loan.' This recommendation will be found of more importance than it may at first appear: since, while it secures all the efficacy attendant on the acquisition of a surplus-revenue, it saves to the public the *bonus* on what would otherwise be borrowed. It saves likewise the loss that would be incurred by paying at a high rate, in peace, a portion of the money which we borrow on comparatively unfavourable terms in war. — On the other hand, Dr. H. admits that the scheme of the sinking-fund has had a real effect in inducing the country to submit to additional taxes: but how far this, taken in a comprehensive view, has been a good, it will remain for posterity to determine. 'We are not,' he says, 'of opinion that the sinking-fund has contributed in any degree to frugality in expenditure. The time during which it has operated, has not been a time of national frugality. Ministers have had the full power of raising what loans they pleased, to supply the means of any expenditure, however lavish; and it will not be said they have used this power with a sparing hand.'

Lord Henry Petty's plan of finance receives no better treatment at the hands of this rigid investigator. It was blended, he remarks, with many circumstances of collateral advantage, which were extraneous to the leading principle of the measure, and tended to embarrass the formation of a distinct opinion on it. Divesting it of these incidental accompaniments, Dr. H. exhibits its operation very explicitly in two tables, (p. 210, 211.) and pronounces it (p. 163.) to be the most exceptionable of all the schemes for the reduction of our public burdens.

IV. *Mr. Vansittart's Plan of Finance.*—"To speak to accounts" is seldom an easy or a pleasant task: but it would be hard to discover a more luckless attempt at intelligibility than that which is exhibited by the demi-official pamphlet under the title of 'Outlines of the Plan of Finance.' To Mr. Vansittart's pen we can scarcely ascribe it, after the specimen of clear and in some respects elegant composition which was afforded by his published speech on the Bullion-question. In the present tract, the reader turns over page after page, and is in doubt whether to attribute the obscurity to the inattention or the design of the writer. After much consideration, he finds out that the leading feature of the new plan is to make the 'sinking-fund in a manner stationary, taking from it the annual additions of interest accruing from discharged debt, and holding these additions, in whole or in part, at the disposal of parliament.' Hitherto, the stock bought up by the commissioners of the sinking-fund has been kept *uncancelled*; and the half-yearly dividends on it, being paid regularly at the Bank to these commissioners, in the same way as to other creditors, have served to form annual accessions to the sinking-fund. Now, however, the total amount of debt discharged (about 240 millions of stock) is to be declared *cancelled*; and the taxes supplying the funds for payment of its interest are pronounced applicable, not exclusively to the liquidation of our debt, but likewise to the interest of such fresh loans as may be necessary. After all, the difference between the old and the new plan is chiefly in appearance; inasmuch as it is nearly the same thing to prevent the increase of debt as to discharge it after its existence. We shall endeavour to throw some light on the operation of this intricate and ill-described plan, by making a few extracts from the tables subjoined to the official pamphlet.

Estimated Annual and Total Amount of New Taxes, to be imposed according to the Old System, and according to the Proposed Plan; on the Supposition of Annual Loans of 28,000,000l. at 5l. per cent., until the Redemption of all Funded Debt created prior to 1813.				
Old System.			Proposed Plan.	
	Annual.	Total.	Annual.	Total.
1813.	1,866,666	1,866,666	1,127,963	1,127,963
1814.	1,866,666	3,733,332	- - -	1,127,963
1815.	1,866,666	5,599,998	- - -	1,127,963
1816.	1,866,666	7,466,664	- - -	1,127,963
1817.	1,866,666	9,333,330	1,290,206	2,418,169
1818.	1,866,666	11,199,996	676,775	3,094,944
1819.	1,866,666	13,066,662	2,008,333	5,103,277
1820.	1,866,666	14,933,328	1,925,833	7,099,110

Without

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Without much calculation, we are enabled by the above to arrive at one comfortable conclusion, — the assurance of an essential diminution in the progress of taxation. The next table is of greater length.

Estimated-Amount of the Sinking Fund, at the 1st of August in each Year, according to the Old System, and according to the Proposed Plan, upon the foregoing Suppositions.		
—	Old System.	Proposed Plan.
1813. -	13,269,958	14,397,921
1814. -	14,423,455	13,047,817
1815. -	15,634,627	12,860,207
1816. -	16,906,357	12,033,217
1817. -	18,241,674	11,164,877
1818. -	19,643,757	11,607,837
1819. -	21,115,944	11,428,842
1820. -	22,661,740	12,639,033
1821. -	23,090,971	13,896,609
1822. -	24,718,019	15,208,314
1823. -	26,426,419	14,498,729
1824. -	28,220,239	14,409,318
1825. -	30,103,750	14,876,057
1826. -	32,081,437	16,227,984
1827. -	34,158,008	16,719,465
1828. -	36,338,408	16,734,351
1829. -	38,627,828	18,161,693
*1830. -	19,745,200	17,820,636
1831. -	21,204,960	18,634,662
1832. -	22,094,571	19,027,436
1833. -	23,671,799	19,606,337
1834. -	23,063,828	19,877,542
1835. -	23,494,319	20,523,121
1836. -	25,141,534	21,300,648
1837. -	26,858,638	21,917,084

* In 1830, the sinking-fund, according to the existing system, is reduced from 41,031,719l. its amount on the 1st August of that year, to 19,745,200l. in consequence of the redemption of the debts consolidated by the act of 1802.

The point, on which the reader must fix his attention, as explanatory of the similarity of result in the two plans, is the arrangement for the year 1830. On the old plan, the sinking-fund was to undergo no suspension of accumulating progress until that year; — whatever might be the amount of our bur-

dens, and whether peace or war was to be our lot, this fund was to proceed on the plan of compound interest until that year; at which time a sum of taxes to the amount of nearly twenty millions was to be taken from it, and either repealed or declared applicable as a provision for the interest of fresh loans. Now, that which was to be delayed until 1830, and which was to be done in a mass, is to be done forthwith and progressively. The change, however, is little else than a change of calculation; the year 1830 having been inserted in the old plan with no other object than to exhibit, in a definite point, the sweeping results of the sinking-fund.

We present, in the third place, a comparison of the effects of the two plans with regard to the method of keeping the accounts of the public debt.

Statement of the Periods of Redemption of the Funded Debt contracted prior to 1813, according to the Old System, and according to the Proposed Plan; continuing the foregoing Suppositions.		
<i>Loans.</i>	<i>Old System.</i>	<i>Proposed Plan.</i>
All prior to - - - 1793	1830	1813
Loan of - - - 1793	do.	1813
1794	do.	1814
1795	do.	1816
1796	do.	1818
1797	do.	1822
1798	do.	1823
1799	do.	1824
1800	do.	1826
1801	do.	1827
1802	do.	1829
1803	1832	1829
1804	1834	1830
1805	1834	1831
1806	1835	1832
1807 { War Tax Loan -	1821	1833
{ Supp' Loan - -	1837	1833
1808	1844	1833
1809	1843	1834
1810	1843	1835
1811	1845	1836
1812	1844	1837

Here,

Here, as in the rest of this official Outline, credit appears to be assumed for much more than is performed. The unsuspecting reader naturally takes for granted, from the imposing sound of the word 'redemption,' that the new plan is actually of superior efficacy in the liquidation of the national debt. Nay, there appears in the first line a difference of not less than seventeen years ; — a difference, however, which will be found to be nothing more than a distinction of account. On the old plan, the liquidated stock remained in the hands of the commissioners of the sinking-fund ; while, on the new plan, the stock, as we mentioned before, is accounted *cancelled*, and the securities producing interest are held applicable either to farther reduction or to other purposes.

By way of preventing alarm or injury to public credit, from the promulgation of the new plan, several palliatives and apparent advantages have been coupled with it. An immediate annual addition of 870,000*l.* is given to the sinking-fund ; a provision of one per cent. on unfunded exchequer-bills is to be made for the purpose of their gradual liquidation ; and a farther precaution is taken for those years in which the addition to the public debt may exceed its reduction. Amid all these explanations, however, a scrupulous silence is observed as to the main point ; namely, that, the imposition of fresh taxes to the extent required being impracticable, we have found it necessary to trench on the sinking-fund. It was indeed high time to have recourse to a new expedient ; the demands for the present year, in the shape of loans, being for Great Britain and Ireland (Huskisson's Speech, p. 36, 37. 68.) little short of 40 millions. In a late important transaction, (we mean the funding of the exchequer-bills in the end of March,) Mr. Vansittart was obliged to grant stock at an ascertained loss of 15½ per cent. to the public. Nothing, therefore, could be more opportune than the recent change on the Continent for the support of our stocks, and for the introduction of a financial arrangement which, under different circumstances, would have been productive of serious alarm. Other considerations likewise have had a tendency to co-operate towards its favourable reception. Few persons, even among stock-holders, comprehend the plan in its extent : but they are satisfied that it leads to no immediate injury, and they look to time and chance for a balance to remote disadvantages. An assurance of having no new taxes for four years is a most consolatory point, and is alone sufficient to form a powerful counterpoise to unfavourable anticipations. The pacific character, too, of the measure, the disposition which it discovers to keep our expences within compass, and the acknowledgement of the necessity of husbanding our resources,

are

are points calculated to recommend it as much to the capitalist as to the philosophic advocate for peace. It has one more merit also, according to Dr. Hamilton's principles; inasmuch as it is more profitable to the public to prevent the creation of debt than to provide for its subsequent extinction.

After having bestowed these epithets of commendation on the new plan, it becomes necessary to make a few remarks of an opposite character. The measure discovers, it must be confessed, very little ingenuity; and the minister has had the discretion to found on it no personal claim for reputation. Gladly should we add that the praise of candour were equally due to the minister, or to the author of the official 'Outline,' when he comments on the state of our funds: but the confident observations in this respect, and still more Mr. Vansittart's subsequent speech (31st March) on the new taxes, are of such a nature as forcibly to remind us of the tone of plausibility and exaggeration which becomes habitual to men in office, and of the truth of the Frenchman's remark, "*Qu'on ne peut point regner innocemment.*" We need only give, for example, the assertion (Outlines, p. 18.) that the 'great and ultimate object of the sinking-fund is to relieve the nation from the burden of taxes which would be entailed on it by the indefinite extension of the public debt.' This assertion is brought forwards with as much gravity as if the sinking-fund itself were derived from any thing else than taxes; or as if the writer were serious in the belief that, by some inexplicable charm, it operated to reduce the burdens of the people. Another allegation, less gross indeed, but equally unfounded in point of policy, is the argument (p. 17.) respecting the 'advantage of keeping in reserve the means of funding a large sum (suppose 100 millions) as a resource against war.' This declaration is particularly calculated for popular effect, and is maintained with as much confidence as if the fund, thus provided, were not wrung from the productive capital of the country. 'It would be,' says this writer, 'the first example of an immense accumulation of public property, formed without the impoverishment of any individual;' as if this accumulation could be raised otherwise than by taxes, and as if taxes were wholly passive as to retarding population, depreciating money, or injuring our manufactures and trade. How necessary is it to recall to such writers the maxim of Vauban, "*Que l'argent le mieux employé est celui que le Roi laisse entre les mains de ses sujets.*" We have had in England no example of a government hoarding up money taken from the subject, since the days of Henry VII.; a prince certainly not the fittest in our history for the imitation of a Chancellor of the Exchequer.

Singular, however, as this pamphlet is, it deserves attention for the official hints with which it is interspersed. A hope is expressed (p. 4.) that our continental expences will not be of long continuance; and it is admitted that an addition to our war-taxes would be felt as a very heavy burden. It is afterward confessed (p. 16.) that to avoid additional taxes is the true way to render the present taxes productive; and it is taken for granted (p. 33.) that the rate of interest may fall in peace to four per cent. These admissions are remarkable in the eye of any person who is accustomed to watch the language of ministers, as indicative of an approximation to a change of politics. Until Lord Liverpool's accession to his present station, our cabinet and the subordinate departments spoke no other language than that of an indefinite prolongation of war. It is amusing, likewise, to trace a similar change in the more elaborate speeches of Mr. Huskisson. He, who was formerly so resolute an advocate for adding sacrifice to sacrifice, now deems it proper to admit (Speech, p. 53.) that the extension of our debt can raise the 'interest of money to six or seven per cent.; and that this high rate of interest has a prejudicial effect on our manufactures, our commerce, and above all, on our agriculture.' The official 'Outlines' conclude with a copy of the "Resolutions" submitted to parliament, the substance of which may be comprized in a few sentences, and will serve to throw some light on Mr. Vansittart's mysterious plan.

The amount of national debt contracted before 1786 (nearly 240 millions of stock,) is now discharged by the operation of the sinking-fund.

An official declaration shall be made that this, and such farther sums of national debt as may be bought up, are satisfied and discharged.

After such declaration, the stock so satisfied shall be formally cancelled by act of parliament; *in order to make provision for charging any future loan on the funds hitherto appropriated to the payment of the interest of the stock thus redeemed.*

The sum of 867,963l. a-year shall be forthwith added, to the sinking-fund; and all monies belonging to that fund shall continue applicable to the reduction of the national debt, except in as far as these Resolutions otherwise provide.

We are now to take leave of Mr. Vansittart and his financial calculations, for the purpose of making a few remarks, in our critical capacity, on the compositions of Mr. Huskisson and Dr. Hamilton. The chief merit of the former consists in perspicuous definitions of official measures; such as (p. 6. 10. 19.) of the nature of Mr. Pitt's sinking-fund; (p. 33.) of the object of the new plan; with a variety of details, (p. 19. 20. 27. 50.) on which

which nothing but their want of interest to general readers prevents us from enlarging. 'A loan,' says Mr. Huskisson, (p. 49.) 'is nothing but the sale by government of a certain number of annuities at the best price which it can get.'—'Mr. Vansittart's plan may be called an expedient for pushing our debt in time of war as far as possible, by taking as much as possible from the Sinking-fund.' Mr. H., though no stranger to the plausibility of tone assumed by men in office, confesses (p. 44, 45.) that he was not a little startled at the bold assertions contained in the official 'Outlines' and the appended tables; and he proceeds to detect their fallacy with the acuteness of a practised politician, expatiating largely (p. 60. *et seq.*) on the inconsistency between the present and the former opinions of the Chancellor of the Exchequer. After all, he is obliged (p. 73.) to admit that the change, against which he makes such vehement protestations, is in a great measure nominal; and that a modification of the late plan of our sinking-fund would, in any event, have soon been requisite. In his Speech, (p. 39. 48. 53.) as in his publication on the Bullion-question, we have been struck with the keen opposition-style of this *quondam* supporter of ministers; a keenness which neither a personal compliment (p. 79.) to Mr. Vansittart, nor an apparent moderation (p. 32.) in pushing an argument, is likely to render palatable to the coadjutors of his earlier days.—In analyzing the substance of his reasoning, the principal conclusion is that Mr. Vansittart's plan would be unsuitable for a long continuance of war; and, in forming an estimate of his Speech as a composition, the leading blemish will be found to consist in prolixity.

On turning to Dr. Hamilton's pages, we find a work composed in a very different spirit from either of the other productions. It is a plain and unadorned statement of the result of patient and methodical calculation; and the writer appears to have no other view than the correction, or rather the modification, of some very erroneous and generally circulated opinions. The only point of resemblance between him and Mr. Huskisson will be found in a mutual partiality to diffuseness of illustration. This was the grand error of Dr. Smith, and arose from his not being aware how greatly a habit of condensation may be made conducive to perspicuity. The Appendix to Dr. Hamilton's publication is exclusively in the form of tables; a form so much superior to any other for arithmetical combinations, that we cannot help regretting that an approximation to it had not been attempted in various passages (p. 46, 47, &c.) of the text. Calculation is seldom an attractive exercise of our powers; and nothing proves a greater relief to the tedium of

it than the points which well chosen vacancies render distinct and prominent to the eye of the reader. The learned author takes the precaution, in our opinion very unnecessarily, to protest against the imputation of deficient patriotism, in consequence of the freedom of his strictures on our finances. Of *crieurs*, as the French term them, or of those who run riot in declamations on public prosperity, we have had abundance in our day: but the men whom the country really wants are those who can unite a spirit of impartiality to the knowledge and industry which are necessary to throw light on her most important interests. — It is of consequence to remark that Dr. H. does not undertake to discuss the *moral* influence of financial measures; we mean, the temporary effect produced on the popular mind by the adoption of a specious system. His labours are strictly arithmetical, and his judgment on our official schemes is founded altogether on their numerical results. With this limitation, his conclusions are to be received; and if his countrymen are agreed that permanent consequences are the only objects worthy of a wise government, they will be at no loss to put a value on the information which he has given to them.

ART. IX. *Remorse*; a Tragedy, in Five Acts. By S. T. Coleridge. Second Edition. 8vo. 3s. Pople. 1813.

GOOD tragedies have seemed, for some years past, to be a species of composition almost extinct in England. It might be interesting to investigate the causes of this strange decay of one branch of national genius, and to ascertain whether they are to be found in the size and pantomimic splendor of our theatres; whether the taste of the public, which demands that size and splendor, be not, in fact, too frivolous for so high and grave a kind of entertainment; or whether our dramatic authors themselves have not unaccountably failed in ambition to reach the highest point of their art, as if some penal law depressed their efforts and forbade them to rise above a certain station. These questions, however, we must at present decline to discuss; and confining ourselves principally to the play before us, which has more than common claims to our attention, we shall endeavour to appreciate its merits, and also to throw some light on the obstacles which have prevented this, and (by implication) other dramas of the day from attaining a greater degree of excellence. First, then, let us offer a tolerably full analysis of the story of '*Remorse*,' which will include some remarks on the conduct of that story; and
examine

examine the definition and contrast of the characters, interspersing our observations with a few passages, which may give the reader an adequate idea of the dialogue.

The scene of this drama is in Spain, and the time is the reign of Philip the Sécond, just at the close of the civil wars against the Moors, and during the heat of the persecution which raged against them; shortly after the edict which forbade the wearing of Moresco apparel, under pain of death. The Marquis Valdez, a noble Spaniard, has two sons, Alvar and Ordonio. He is also guardian to the orphan Donna Teresa, who is alike the object of Alvar's and Ordonio's passion. So far we are reminded of the plot of "The Orphan:" but the resemblance here ceases. Alvar, indeed, is the favoured brother, but the atrocious character of Ordonio is borrowed from some other source. He hires assassins to remove his rival: but the principal of them, Isidore, 'a Moresco chieftain, ostensibly a Christian,' relents, on being informed by Alvar that he is Ordonio's brother. Alvar leaves the country, but at the opening of the play he has returned to Spain; having just landed on the coast of Granada, where he intends to assume the disguise of a Moor. The years, too, which have elapsed during his exile, and his youth at the time of its commencement,—his long imprisonment, (which followed on his being wounded and taken in a battle for 'the better cause' in the Belgic states,)—and the scar of his wound,—all conspire to complete his disguise. He adds:

'——— Besides, they think me dead:
And what the mind believes impossible,
'The bodily sense is slow to recognize.'*

He determines to seek an interview with Ordonio's wife, as, he was informed by the assassin, Teresa had already become; yet he retains some doubt of the tale, and a sort of general persuasion of the fidelity of his betrothed mistress. He is also resolved to awaken the conscience of his guilty brother; Isidore having betrayed that he was employed by Ordonio.

We are made acquainted with the chief of these circumstances in the first scene between Alvar and Zulimez, his faithful attendant. The full disclosure of such important events to that attendant, by his master, is opportunely delayed till their arrival in Spain; and thus the audience is made acquainted with them inartificially enough. A scene between Valdez and Teresa follows, in which the father unsuccessfully

* Was this philosophical piece of poetry suggested by the doubts of the Apostle Thomas?

pleads the cause of his son Ordonio; the fact being that Teresa is not married to him, and is entirely averse from his addresses. Monviedro, a Dominican and Inquisitor, now enters, with Alhadra the wife of Isidore, who has appealed to Ordonio for testimony of his 'soundness in the Catholic faith,' he having been accused of a relapse into Mohammedanism. On Ordonio's entrance, a scene ensues, which excites strong symptoms of 'Remorse' in the guilty brother, and increases Teresa's aversion for him. When the men have retired, she lingers with Alhadra on the beach, where the whole of the scene has hitherto passed; and while the latter is expressing her fears for her husband, they are interrupted by Alvar in his Moorish dress. After some agitation on his part, he converses with them, and, under the fiction of a dream, relates or rather shadows out the principal circumstances of his attachment to Teresa, and of the attempt to assassinate him. Teresa, of course, is greatly interested by this conversation; and she leaves Alvar more inclined than ever to believe in her fidelity.

Act ii. introduces Ordonio and Isidore, near the house of the latter, in a wild and mountainous country. The patron again wishes to employ his dependant in his intrigues; and his desire now is that Isidore should disguise himself as a magician, and endeavour by some pretended act of sorcery to convince Teresa of the death of Alvar. For the furtherance of this design, he tells him to make use of the portrait of Teresa, which she had given to Alvar at their parting, (overseen by Ordonio,) and which, according to Ordonio's orders, Isidore had taken from Alvar when his life was spared:—an event of which Ordonio is still uninformed. Isidore refuses compliance with this new deceit; urging that, at the time of the assassination, Ordonio had told him he was beloved by Teresa, and that he was ignorant of her attachment to Alvar, —nay ignorant who Alvar really was. A quarrel ensues, in the course of which Ordonio learns that his brother (before his supposed death) was informed that he was the planner of the assassination. This circumstance produces a design of bitter revenge against Isidore: but it is now proposed that the Moorish stranger, (the unknown Alvar,) about whose character much of mystery has appeared, shall be employed in this stratagem on Teresa. An interview between the two brothers therefore takes place, at a cottage in the mountains, in which the elder has been concealed. After some delay, and several home-thrusts directed by Alvar against the conscience of Ordonio, the former learns the delightful secret that Teresa is not the wife of his brother, and is overjoyed to receive her portrait (which he had been obliged to surrender in order to save his

life) for the purpose of the intended deception: but neither the plot, nor its object on Alvar's part, namely, the wish to rouse the conscience of his brother, can excuse such cold-blooded delay in the lover's recognition of his mistress; and besides, there is something so strange, and at the same time so ludicrous, in this incident of *mark-magic*, on which the whole piece turns, that we cannot but consider it as a capital and insurmountable defect in the story.

Act iii. opens in the castle of Lord Valdez, with the solemn mummery of soft music and invisible choristers, an altar, and incense suddenly taking fire on it, &c. &c. In the midst of the farce, instead of the picture of Teresa, (whose aversion to the 'unholy rite' saves her the pain of being present,) is exhibited an illuminated representation of the scene of Alvar's supposed assassination. This, it seems, Alvar had executed (for, *opportunistically*, he is a limner,) during his banishment; and the conscience of the villain is aroused by this exhibition (which we do not despair of seeing hereafter at the Royal Academy) as keenly as that of the king by the play in Hamlet. The Inquisitor and his attendants, however, break in on the scene of sorcery, and hurry off Alvar to the dungeon under the castle. A scene succeeds between Valdez, Teresa, and Ordonio, which calls forth still more eloquently the compunction of the guilty brother.

The sixth act introduces Isidore waiting for Ordonio in a cavern among the rocks; where, after some dark and pregnant interchange of words, in which Ordonio bodies forth their own situation under a feigned tale, (reminding us of Alvar's pretended dream before *,) the wily villain assaults his agent, and attempts to destroy him. Isidore, although summoned by a most 'moving letter' to the interview, yet entertained some suspicions of Ordonio, and came ready armed: but he is disarmed in their rencontre, and flies from his superior into the inner part of the cavern. Hither Ordonio pursues him, but presently returns, alone, exclaiming,

'I have hurl'd him down the chasm! Treason for treason.'

At first thought, and still more at first sight, this incident commits some sin against poetical justice, and consequently we are beginning to recoil from it: but on a moment's considera-

* We have throughout the play too much dreaming, and allusion to dreams; and we are almost tempted to imagine that on some of these occasions the author's will was suspended, (as is the case in dreams,) and that he was mechanically forced to dwell on such airy subjects by some involuntary impulse.

tion, we acquiesce in it, as the probable though shocking result of the situation of the desperate Ordonio.

Teresa now appears at the gate of the dungeon in which Alvar is confined. Valdez enters, and again vainly endeavours to reconcile her to the love of Ordonio. Meanwhile, a peasant brings him an alarming but unintelligible letter from his son, and he hastens to unravel it. The scene changes to the 'mountains by moonlight,' and Alhadra appears in her Moorish dress. She is shortly joined by a band of her countrymen, who are all eager to revenge the death of Isidore, which Alhadra in burning grief communicates to them. She had followed her husband to the cavern, and, looking down the chasm in its last recess, had seen his blood on the jutting rocks. They rush off, impatient for revenge.—The whole of this scene strikes us as natural and spirited.

Act v. discloses the interior of the dungeon, and Alvar soliloquizing on his sad estate. Teresa enters; a most beautiful scene follows; and their recognition is gradually and tenderly completed. Ordonio now appears, with a poisoned goblet in his hand: a very impressive dialogue takes place between the brothers; and Ordonio at last, in an agony of horror, discovers his much-injured Alvar. Just as his shame, grief, pride, and 'Remorse,' are mingling together into one wild distraction, Alhadra and her devoted Moors burst into the prison, and Ordonio dies by the hand of the wife of Isidore.—The rest may be imagined; Alvar and Teresa bend over the body of their 'guilty brother.'

We have thus analyzed the story of the play; and in so doing we have anticipated some of our intended remarks on the more striking scenes, as well as offered the observations which we promised on the conduct of the plot. It remains for us to call the attention of the reader, and to recall that of the spectator, to the more prominent beauties of the tragedy; and to point out the contrast of character in the *Dramatis Personæ*. Descriptions, of a high and unusual merit, occur in every act. The detached passages, in which some common thought (or rather some thought which we fancy is common, from its acknowledged force and general intelligibility,) is clothed in its own language, we mean in the very best and most poetical, are also numerous:

'Remorse is as the heart in which it grows:
If that be gentle, it drops balmy dews
Of true Repentance; but if proud and gloomy,
It is a poison-tree, that, pierced to the inmost,
Weeps only tears of poison!'

This

This is well : but much that follows is better. Of Shakspeare we are frequently reminded ; not by any paltry plagiarism, but by bold and *original imitation*, if we may be allowed the expression. For instance,

——— ‘ My long captivity
Left me no choice : The very *Wish* too languish’d
With the fond *Hope* that nurs’d it ; the sick babe
Droop’d at the bosom of its famish’d mother.’——

“ Thy *wish* was father, Harry ! to that *thought*.”

Harry the Fourth.

Both, perhaps, are conceits : but the copy is superior to the original. Then, as a description :

‘ *Alvar*. As we passed by, I bade thee mark the base,
Of yonder cliff——

‘ *Zulimez*. That rocky seat you mean,
Shaped by the billows ?——

‘ *Alvar*. There Teresa met me,
The morning of the day of my departure.
We were alone : the purple hue of dawn
Fell from the kindling east aslant upon us,
And, blending with the blushes on her cheek,
Suffus’d the tear-drops there with rosy light.
There seem’d a glory round us, and Teresa
The angel of the vision !——

—— Hadst thou seen
How in each motion her most innocent soul
Beam’d forth and brighten’d, thou thyself would’st tell me,
Guilt is a thing impossible in her,
She must be innocent !’

The touching fancies of Teresa, in her description to Valdez of the employment of her lone hours, occupied as they are in sanguine dreams of the safety of his son*, display a very powerful range over the wildest and least frequented lands of poesy, in the mind of the writer : but these we must omit. Alhadra’s description of her miseries in prison, when first she

* Surely Miss Baillie must have seen (or must have dreamt of) this trait in the character of Teresa. Her own “Aurora” is not a more ardent picture of Hope ; and, in a passage which follows, we fancy that we trace some resemblance to “Orra.” Is not this “*superstitious fear* ?”

‘ —— Still a tale of spirits works upon her——
She is a lone enthusiast, sensitive,
Shivers, and cannot keep the tears in her eye :——
And such do love the marvellous too well
Not to believe it.’

fell under the censure of the Inquisition, is equally forcible in a different manner :

' *Teresa*. What might your crime be ?

' *Albad*. I was a Moresco !
They cast me, then a young and nursing mother,
Into a dungeon of their prison house,
Where was no bed, no fire, no ray of light,
No touch, no sound of comfort ! The black air,
It was a toil to breathe it ! when the door,
Slow opening at the appointed hour, disclosed
One human countenance, the lamp's red flame
Cower'd as it enter'd, and at once sunk down.
Oh miserable ! by that lamp to see
My infant quarrelling with the coarse hard bread
Brought daily : for the little wretch was sickly—
My rage had dried away its natural food.
In darkness I remain'd—the dull bell counting,
Which haply told me, that the all-cheering sun
Was rising on our garden. When I dozed,
My infant's moanings mingled with my slumbers
And waked me.—If you were a mother, lady,
I should scarce dare to tell you, that its noises
And peevish cries so fretted on my brain,
That I have struck the innocent babe in anger.'

We omit much that follows, of very curious observation on character, and of truly pathetic poetry. — If a due occasion arise for the introduction of such a thought as the following, who will reject it ?

' *TIME*, as he courses onwards, still unrolls
The volume of concealment. In the *FUTURE*,
As in the optician's glassy cylinder,
The indistinguishable blots and colors
Of the dim *PAST* collect and shape themselves,
Upstarting in their own completed image,
'To scare or to reward.'—

Should we have doubted for a moment of the genuineness of the subjoined passage, had we found it even in a doubtful work of Shakspeare ?

' *Valdez*. My Alvar lov'd sad music from a child.
Once he was lost : and after weary search
We found him in an open place in the wood,
To which spot he had followed a blind boy,
Who breath'd into a pipe of sycamore
Some strangely moving notes : and these, he said,
Were taught him in a dream. Him we first saw
Stretch'd on the broad top of a sunny heath-bank :
And lower down poor Alvar, fast asleep,
His head upon the blind boy's dog. It pleas'd me

To mark how he had fasten'd round the pipe
A silver toy his grandam had late given him.
Methinks I see him now as he then look'd—
Even so!—He had outgrown his infant dress.
Yet still he wore it.

' *Alto.* My tears must not flow!
I must not clasp his knees, and cry, My Father!'

Some of the morbid and atheistical reflections of Ordonio
are strongly expressed :

' Love ! love ! and then we hate ! and what ? and wherefore ?
Hatred and love ! Fancies oppos'd by fancies !
What ? if one reptile sting another reptile ?
Where is the crime ? The goodly face of nature
Hath one disfiguring stain the less upon it.
Are we not all predestin'd Transiency,
And cold Dishonor ? Grant it, that this hand
Had given a morsel to the hungry worms
Somewhat too early—Where's the crime of this?
That this must needs bring on the idiocy
Of moist-eyed Penitence—'tis like a dream !

' *Vald.* Wild talk, my son ! But thy excess of feeling ———
(*averting himself.*)

Almost, I fear, it hath unhing'd his brain.

' *Ord.* (*Now in soliloquy, and now addressing his father : and
just after the speech has commenced, Teresa re-appears
and advances slowly.*)

Say, I had lay'd a body in the sun !
Well ! in a month there swarm forth from the corse
A thousand, nay, ten thousand sentient beings
In place of that one man.—Say, I had kill'd him !
(*Teresa starts, and stops listening.*)

Yet who shall tell me, that each one and all
Of these ten thousand lives is not as happy
As that one life, which being push'd aside,
Made room for these unnumber'd ———

' *Vald.* O mere madness !

[*Teresa moves hastily forwards, and places herself directly
before Ordonio.*]

' *Ord.* (*Checking the feeling of surprise, and forcing his tones into
an expression of playful courtesy.*)

Teresa ? or the phantom of Teresa ?'

The directions to the actors in this passage, and in many
others, are too German and too minute : but, says the author,
in the preface *, ' from the necessity of hastening the publi-

* We cannot avoid remarking the inaccurate composition of this
preface, particularly in the first page.

cation I was obliged to send the manuscript intended for the stage, which is the sole cause of the number of directions printed in Italics.' His gratitude to the performers is surely overcharged.

Isidore's description of the chasm, down which he is afterward hurled, in the fourth act, is poetical, if not dramatic. Whatever these expressions may be, they are living and energetic :

' — My body bending forward, yea, o'erbalanced
Almost beyond recoil, on the dim brink
Of a huge chasm I stept. The shadowy moonshine,
Filling the void, so counterfeited substance,
That my foot hung aslant adown the edge.'

Teresa's contrast of Alvar and Ordonio, when she is resisting their father's solicitation for the latter, is a passage which may modestly be compared with the comparison of Hamlet's father and uncle :

' O that I had indeed the sorcerer's power —
I would call up before thine eyes the image
Of my betrothed Alvar, of thy First-born !
His own fair countenance, his kingly forehead,
His tender smiles, love's day-dawn on his lips !
That spiritual and almost heavenly light
In his commanding eye—his mien heroic,
Virtue's own native heraldry ! to man
Genial, and pleasant to his guardian angel.
Whene'er he gladden'd, how the gladness spread
Wide round him ! and when oft with swelling tears,
Flash'd through by indignation, he bewail'd
The wrongs of Belgium's martyr'd patriots,
Oh, what a grief was *there*—for joy to envy,
Or gaze upon enamour'd !

O my father !
Recal that morning when we knelt together,
And thou did'st bless our loves ! O even now,
Even now, my sire ! to thy mind's eye present him
As at that moment he rose up before thee,
Stately, with beaming look ! Place, place beside him
Ordonio's dark perturbed countenance !
Then bid me (Oh thou could'st not) bid me turn
From him, the joy, the triumph of our kind !
To take in exchange that brooding man, who never
Lifts up his eye from the earth, unless to scowl.^a

Her exclamation of melancholy joy, when reflecting on her past days of love, is not inferior :

' O Alvar ! Alvar ! that they could return
Those blessed days that imitated heaven,

When

When we two wont to walk at even tide ;
When we saw nought but beauty ; when we heard
The voice of that Almighty One who lov'd us
In every gale that breath'd, and wave that murmur'd !
O we have listen'd, even till high-wrought pleasure
Hath half assumed the countenance of grief,
And the deep sigh seem'd to heave up a weight
Of bliss, that press'd too heavy on the heart.

(A pause.)

And this majestic Moor, seems he not one
Who oft and long communing with my Alvar
Hath drunk in kindred lustre from his presence,
And guides me to him with reflected light ?
What if in yon dark dungeon coward treachery
Be groping for him with envenom'd poignard —
Hence womanish fears, traitors to love and duty —
I'll free him. [Exit Teresa.]

Alvar's reflections on the ill-judging conduct of men towards their erring brethren, and his eulogy on the reforming powers of Nature,

(' With other ministrations, thou, Oh, Nature !
Healest thy wand'ring and distemper'd child, ')

may perhaps remind our readers of the German sentimentality which was so fashionable a few years since ; and which, among other *sublime* effusions, produced — " Oh holy Nature ! thou dost never plead in vain ! " — but such ebullitions of sentiment ought to be and are less offensive now ; and perhaps the recoil of opinion, by which we have been led to despise and laugh at every thing sentimental, requires check rather than encouragement at present. When Ordonio offers the poisoned cup to Alvar, the remark of the latter, by which he conveys or rather hints his suspicions that the cup *is* poisoned, appears to us to be conceived and expressed in the last corruption of taste :

' Alvar. Yon insect on the wall,
Which moves, this way and that, its hundred limbs,
Were it a toy of mere mechanic craft,
It were an infinitely curious thing !
But it has life, Ordonio ! life, enjoyment !
And by the power of its miraculous will
Wields all the complex movements of its frame
Unerringly to pleasurable Ends !
Saw I that insect on this goblet's brim
I would remove it with an anxious pity !

' Ordonio. What meanest thou ?

Alv. There's poison in the wine.'

Alvar's

Alvar's reproof, however, to his half-reasoning and wholly abandoned brother, is most eloquent and instructive :

' What then art thou ? For shame, put up thy sword !
 What boots a weapon in a wither'd arm ?
 I fix mine eye upon thee, and thou tremblest !
 I speak, and fear and wonder crush thy rage,
 And turn it to a motionless distraction !
 Thou blind self worshipper ! thy pride, thy cunning.
 Thy faith in universal villany,
 Thy shallow sophisms, thy pretended scorn
 For all thy human brethren — out upon them !
 What have they done for thee ? have they given thee peace ?
 Cur'd thee of starting in thy sleep ? or made
 The darkness pleasant when thou wak'st at midnight ?
 Art happy when alone ? Can'st walk by thyself
 With even step and quiet cheerfulness ?
 Yet, yet thou may'st be sav'd —
 ' Ord. (vacantly repeating the words.) Sav'd ? sav'd ?
 ' Alvo. One pang !
 Could I call up one pang of true Remorse !'

We conclude our extracts with the last speech of Alhadra :

' I thank thee, Heaven ! thou hast ordain'd it wisely,
 That still extremes bring their own cure. That point
 In misery, which makes the oppressed Man
 Regardless of his own life, makes him too
 Lord of the Oppressor's — Knew I an hundred men
 Despairing, but not palsied by despair,
 This arm should shake the Kingdoms of the World ;
 The deep foundations of iniquity
 Should sink away, earth groaning from beneath them ;
 The strong-holds of the cruel men should fall,
 Their Temples and their mountainous Towers should fall ;
 Till Desolation seem'd a beautiful thing,
 And all that were and had the Spirit of Life,
 Sang a new song to her who had gone forth,
 Conquering and still to conquer.'

Our readers, we think, will now be ready to join with us in our approbation of the vigorous and animated versification of this drama. It is indeed occasionally irregular and inharmonious, but scarcely ever spiritless. The characters demand a more unqualified panegyric. Alvar (with the above-mentioned drawback of his unnatural conduct as a lover) is an admirable draught of the gentle, ardent, and generous cavalier. Isidore is human nature itself, exposed to dangerous temptation, and displayed in some of its most striking varieties of weakness and strength, of good and bad. Alhadra is Moorish nature. Teresa, as the author confesses, is imperfectly developed, but still is interesting
 from

from her fidelity, and excites no common sympathy from that sanguine disposition which is so congenial to the kinder part of our species. Valdez is little or nothing; and Ordonio, on whom the author has expended his utmost strength, is far from being adequately successful. With the exception, almost with the sole exception, of the passages to which we have referred, there is something broad, coarse, and rudely marked in the features of his 'Remorse.' He seems mad with anticipated detection too soon: yet he is the *sketch* of no vulgar imagination.

In a word, we think that Mr. Coleridge has only to put some rein on his fancy, to prune some of the exuberant branches of his taste, (if we may venture to offer critical advice in a mixed metaphor,) and to lean, in future, to an imitation of the pathos and the melody of Otway rather than of the nerve and roughness of the elder play-wrights, in order to become a dramatic ornament of his age and nation.

ART. X. *The Speeches and Public Addresses of the Right Hon. George Canning*, during the late Election at Liverpool, and, on a public Occasion, in Manchester. To which is appended a summary Account of the Election. 8vo. pp. 64. Murray.

ART. XI. *A Review of the Speeches of the Right Hon. George Canning*, on the late Election for Liverpool, as far as they relate to the Questions of Peace and of Reform. By William Roscoe. 8vo. pp. 65. Cadell and Davies. 1812.

THE town of Liverpool has long been divided between our two great political parties. There, as in other mercantile cities, a large majority formerly prevailed, who, putting literal confidence in the declarations of ministers, considered war and measures of vigour as indispensable to the welfare of the country; and so general was this persuasion, that, in the election of 1806, the Foxite party had considerable difficulty, though their friends were in office, in obtaining the return of one of the members. In the next election, May 1807, the ministerial interest seemed all powerful; and notwithstanding the dreadful losses experienced by the Liverpool merchants, from the mismanagement of our West-India colonies and our Orders in Council, the influence of former prepossessions gave way very slowly to different feelings. This was the more remarkable, because the prosperity of the city depends almost entirely on the successful state of West India and American trade. At last, about twelve months ago, the distress of Liverpool, from the total stoppage of American intercourse, became so serious as
to

to lead to an urgent petition to Parliament; and the issue of this and other petitions being a repeal of our Orders in Council, the oppositionists in Liverpool flattered themselves with having obtained a sufficient hold on their townsmen to carry the nomination of the two members at the late election. In their ardent calculations, however, they not only overlooked the weight of the influence that would be exerted against them, and the stubborn adherence of their adversaries to former feelings, whether connected or not with sound views of their own interest, but, by attempting to bring in both members, they excited unusual activity against their design.

Mr. Brougham having been put up by the oppositionists, and appearing to be highly acceptable from his recent parliamentary labours, the ministerialists found it necessary to look out for a man of reputation as his rival; and they fixed, with considerable address, on Mr. Canning. Not satisfied with carrying that gentleman's election, they published, first in the newspapers, and afterward in the shape of a pamphlet, the admired harangues with which he regaled his hearers from the hustings. In turning over these pages, we find little that differs from the common professions and declarations of an electioneering candidate: but they were managed, perhaps, with more than common dexterity, and delivered with more than ordinary eloquence.

Mr. C. took occasion to tell his friends (p. 25.) that the office of Secretary of State had been twice offered to him in the course of the last six months. "I declined office, gentlemen, not because I was unwilling to render any services of which my poor abilities were capable — not because I did not acknowledge the gracious disposition of my Prince; but because, if accepted on such terms, it would not have enabled me to serve the public with efficiency." A very cautious manner, this, of explaining a refusal which is said to have proceeded from an expectation of taking, with Marquis Wellesley, the lead in the cabinet, and from a determination not to come into office without it! — However, amid all these effusions and disclosures, Mr. Canning sedulously avoided two topics: — his conduct towards Lord Castlereagh, and the difference with Mr. Perceval which led to his own resignation in autumn 1809.

Mr. Roscoe, in his 'Review,' enlarges chiefly on the pertinacity of the *quondam* minister respecting the question of war. "Gentlemen," said Mr. Canning, "I have been the uniform supporter of the war" — "There is, in point of fact, no necessary connection between the question of war and the question of scarcity" — "Gentlemen, you must not attribute your sufferings to the misconduct of government" — "Your afflictions,

fictions, gentlemen, are as unavoidable as a hurricane or a tornado." These, and other expressions equally extravagant, are quoted and criticised at considerable length by Mr. Roscoe. He expresses (p. 57.) great surprise that the inhabitants of Liverpool, Warrington, and Manchester, have bestowed applause on such language; and he takes (p. 47, 48.) great pains to demonstrate the absurdity of the notion that our trade can be eventually benefited by an obstinate prosecution of hostilities. He does not, however, like some other oppositionists, go so far as to charge Mr. Canning with being conscious of the fallacy of the arguments which he so gravely pronounced. The latter found their suspicion on Mr. C.'s declaration at the public dinner at Liverpool, that "the price we should have to pay for peace would be the surrender of our maritime rights." He could not, we have heard it said, fail to be aware that what are called maritime rights are chiefly measures affecting enemies, or neutrals; and that, in a state of peace, there is no such character as either enemy or neutral. Accordingly, the discussion of maritime rights expires at once with the cessation of hostilities; and it would be futile to make stipulations relative to them in a treaty, because such stipulations could not be applicable to a state of peace, and would certainly be disregarded on a renewal of war. Bonaparte, indeed, has chosen to make many vehement declarations on the subject of maritime rights: but his allegations are known to be frequently thrown out for the purpose of delusion; and on turning to the *Moniteur* of January 1808, we find it expressly admitted that the treatment of neutrals "needs form no stipulation in a pacific arrangement, being necessarily suspended during peace, and liable to alteration on the renewal of war."

In another part of the pamphlet (p. 9. *et seq.*), Mr. Roscoe examines Mr. Canning's views regarding parliamentary reform, and seems astonished to find him little acquainted with the history of our constitution. 'I had been accustomed,' says Mr. Roscoe, (p. 6.) 'to consider him as having formed an important part of administration, and, if not the leader, as the most effective person in a great political party. What then was my surprise when I found, instead of extended views, the most narrow and unaccountable prejudices? Instead of grave or sober remarks on points in which good men differ, and wise men doubt, the most crude and inconsiderate notions.' Such, we believe, is often the mortifying discovery, on a near approach to those who shine forth to the multitude in all the rays of official splendor; and that Mr. Roscoe should not long ago have had penetration enough to make such discoveries appears, we confess, rather extraordinary: but we have no wish to pursue

pursue the subject farther; and we should have hardly adverted to it, were it not to be apprehended that the prudent and temperate disposition, recently discovered by the majority of our statesmen, may be rendered less acceptable to the public by high-sounding declamations in favour of war and vigour, on the part of parliamentary candidates for popularity.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For M A Y, 1813.

POETRY, &c.

Art. 12. *Warwick Castle*; a Poem. Embellished with Engravings from Drawings by J. Roe, Warwick. 4to. pp. 47. 5s. Longman and Co. 1812.

"*Ut pictura poesis*" would in some respects be a correct account of this publication; we mean, that the poet and the landscape-painter have with tolerable exactness represented Warwick and Kenilworth Castles; and that those of our readers who have visited these celebrated spots (forming perhaps the most striking contrast of ruined and of undecayed beauty in architecture, that our country can exhibit,) will recognize the features of each with pleasure. While, however, we praise the design of both artists, the execution of their several representations is by no means so meritorious. In the poetry, indeed, we have many defects to notice. Throughout, it wants spirit, and too often harmony; and the language is not so faultless as it should be in a short and easy effort of versification. Let our readers form their own opinion from these specimens:

- 'Majestic towers! past is now the day,
When giant strength, and brutal force bear sway,' &c. 5.
- 'No guards mount ramparts for defence or state,
But one old Porter keeps each Castle gate.' 6.
- 'And now bold Fancy wild excursion tries,
Spreads her broad wing of Gossamer, and flies
To other days, when Knight with gallant air
By deed of arms did woo some Lady fair,' &c. 11.

As the bard is proceeding to ascend Guy's Tower, in Warwick Castle, he checks his lofty flights of imagination with the following truly sensible remark:

'But dangerous now *vagaries* in the head.'

Again, when he fears that his strain is too morose and unsocial, he subjoins,

'But these are *queries* of an *eremite*.'

The beauties of Guy's Cliff deserve the profusion of epithets (namely, 'romantic, sweet, calm, delightful, elegant,') which the author showers on this classical residence of Mr. Greatbeed, in one couplet.

couplet. He takes no notice, however, of the fine specimens of painting, (the works of a lamented son of the proprietor,) which adorn the interior of this singularly attractive mansion. Leamington, and its lately increasing popularity as a watering-place, are not forgotten; nor, indeed, any part of the more interesting environs of Warwick. — If a second edition of this “Warwick Vade Mecum” appears, let the author erase the following distich:

‘Leave me my cottage, competence, and verse,
I ask *no more* than to deserve *no worse*,’

as well as the note about faith and good works.

Art. 13. *The First Epistle of Ovid translated*; and Minor Poems.
8vo. 2s. T. Hamilton. 1812.

This little pamphlet (for it consists of only thirty-seven pages) is dedicated to Capel Lofft, Esq., ‘the learned patron of literature.’ In the Preface, or rather the Advertisement prefixed to the poetry, we are informed, ‘that the small portion of knowledge which the author possesses has been acquired by sedulously improving those *interstitial vacancies*’ (*Dii boni!* What a phrase!) ‘which a life, spent in business or domestic concerns, has afforded.’ This ominous introduction is followed by a very adequate display of rhymes. What motive can induce people to publish such verses as the subjoined?

‘To thee, Ulysses, slow to bless my sight,
Does thy Penelope this letter write;
Yet not an answer with thine hand prepare,
But come and let thy lips thy fate declare.’

“*Hanc tua Penelope lento tibi mittit Ulyse;
Nil mibi rescribas, attamen ipse veni.*”

Enough of the ‘translation:’ let us now refer for a moment to the ‘Minor Poems.’

‘ODE TO GENIUS.

‘Where dost thou, Genius, lofty pow’r!
Thine habitation hold;
Below does thy high palace tow’r,
Built of terrestrial mould:
Or liv’st in upper regions bright,
Where never ebbs the tide of light:
Or not confined to place
Through the immense of space,
Dost thou, excursive spirit! take thy way;
To the far distant worlds *thy visit pay*,
And of *stupendous universe* the extended bounds survey?’

Spirits, they say in the schools, are not *in loco*, but *ubi*. Whatever *they* may mean by this, it is clear, according to the present writer, that spirits may “pay visits” any where; and consequently, we presume, they may be *at home* to a select party on any occasion, wherever their home may be, through ‘the extended bounds of *stupendous universe*.’ Truly, this is very sorry stuff.

Art. 14. *Quæstiana; a Didactic Poem*, in several Letters on the late improved mode of Study, and examination for Degrees in the University of Oxford. By a Cambridge Master of Arts. 8vo. pp. 98. 6s. sewed. Bickerstaff. 1812.

From the awkward and barbarous language of this unconnected rhapsody, we expected, as we toiled along, that we should discover the false pretensions of the author to any personal knowledge of the Universities which he severally represents and reproves: but alas! he really seems to be a son of *Alma Mater*, from his acquaintance with her forms and discipline, as she presides over each of these institutions. Whether Cambridge has to suffer by his claim of relationship, or whether in fact he be an unworthy Oxonian, we are at a loss to decide. However this may be,

“*Granta suum renuit, Rhedycina refugit alumnus.*”

Not only is he a gross offender in expression, but his versification is more incorrect than any which in these musical days it is usual to encounter. A few extracts from any part of the book will sufficiently confirm our censure:

‘Redolent of duty, on religion’s plan,
They know to vindicate God’s ways to man.
Not so to vindicate what burning zeal
Gives by abstracted faith weak minds to feel,
When laden by their sins they bode no fear,
Since visionary saints their prospects cheer.
And Jesus, hand in hand, and cheek by jowl,
Pours drops of brandy into sinner’s soul;
Thus spirit-renovated, they exhale
Crude eructations, indigested, stale,
Endors’d predestinators, by their head
Calvin! no sleeping partner in the trade.
First of the *firm*, on enlarg’d principle
To Faith their speculative profits tell,
And dividends propose of twelve per cent.,
From new theology’s repos’t’ry sent.
Meek saints! the gall of bitterness not past,
In teeth of *reprobate*, damnation cast,
Save those by evangelical controul,
Tho’ fleshly lusts still war against the soul.
All strong in faith, give drubbing to the *devil*,
Arch-demon him, the origin of *evil*.’

The ensuing line is as accurate in grammar, as the whole of the above passage is elegant in design and execution:

‘And must our youth with faculties be *frone*?’

It would be endless to enumerate such offences. ‘*Non stābis illa domus,*’ &c. 87., and ‘*argumentem,*’ &c., 93., are misprints.—The only interesting parts of the pamphlet are the mottoes to the several letters, which are extracted at some length from Thomson, Cowper, &c. &c. Among the numerous grammatical deficiencies to which we have alluded, the
article

article is omitted throughout; 'a wondering age' is called wond'ring age, and 'an attentive boy,' attentive boy, &c. without mercy. Walter Scott may be so permitted to trespass occasionally: but is it tolerable *Tanto dissimilem*, &c.?

Art. 15. *Fitz-Gwarine*; a Ballad of the Welsh Border. In Three Cantos. With other Rhymes, legendary, incidental, and humorous. By John F. M. Dovaston, A. M. 12mo. pp. 286. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

The ballad of *Fitz-Gwarine* is by far the best in this collection, and contains some pleasing imagery and poetical touches, although they are disfigured by a want of polish and correctness in the verse.—The humorous poems, however, are far from commendable; and the author's talents must be aided by time and study, if he aspires to the title of a poet: though we question whether, in any case, his compositions would rise above mediocrity, or repay him for neglecting the more solid pursuits to which he seems to be professionally devoted.

Art. 16. *The Noble Foundling*; or, the Hermit of the Tweed, a Tragedy, in Five Acts. By Thomas Trotter, M.D. 8vo. 4s. Longman and Co. 1812.

'The Noble Foundling' contains many poetical passages, and some entire scenes which are sufficiently dramatic. 'On revisiting Tweedside,' says Dr. Trotter, 'after many years of absence in the service of my country, early feelings naturally recurred to my remembrance, and gave birth to the following drama.' It is partly founded on a border-tale relating to Habbie Ker of Cessford, and comprizes the old story of an usurper, and of a rightful heir who is at last restored to his property. Some of the characters, especially those of the hero and the heroine, are well conceived and supported: but little that is new occurs in any part of the tragedy. We are continually reminded of Douglas, and generally to the disadvantage of the present performance, though sometimes we think that it will bear the comparison.—We omit the speeches of Albert and of Orlando in the second act, as both inferior to their original;

'*Albert*. My name is Albert; and unknown to fame
On Yarrow's banks my clod-built cottage stands, &c.

'*Orlando*. A small estate, enough for frugal times,
On Leeder's banks was my paternal seat,' &c.

but, in point of flowing and unlaboured versification, we do not conceive that the subjoined passage would have done any discredit to the tragic poet of Scotland. Matilda and Oswald, the heroine and hero, are conversing previously to Oswald's departure for the wars. The speech of the Lady is certainly too long, and too artificial: but, waiving these objections, we must commend the passage.

'*Matilda*. Can heaven approve this murd'rous waste of being?—
Above all creatures man is most a savage—
'Tis man, inhuman man, whose trade is war:
That gives creation's face the gloom of mourning;

And clothes his mother earth in robes of sable —
Guilty pre-eminence! —

‘ *Oswald.* Pity, the dear prerogative of woman;
The gift that made her beauties more divine,
Wakes in thy breast an excess of compassion —

‘ *Mat.* Oh! how I pray that heaven would yet depute,
Some meek forgiving spirit to be umpire —
I plead not to offend the soldier’s ears —
Oswald is all absorb’d in camps and arms:
And the first trumpet that shall sound the charge,
Shall stifle all Matilda’s cries and fears —

‘ *Osw.* Not absence, nor the thousand toils of war,
Shall ever raze thy image from my breast —
While camps contain me, thou shalt charm my thoughts:
Thy smiles shall shield me from each hostile arm —
When vict’ry opens, thou shalt be the prize;
And all my life be sweeten’d with thy love.

‘ *Mat.* But should the fate of battle e’er hang doubtful:
Ah! think while pent in some sequester’d turret,
I, with my female friends must feed on tears:
And sadly ask each passenger the news —
O! say how shall I bear the dire suspense?

‘ *Osw.* Let but Matilda’s bosom cease to fear;
Fortune will yet be faithful to our wishes.

‘ *Mat.* And in some hour more luckless than the rest;
And anxious as we trim the midnight lamp,
Or pensive wait the slow approach of morn;
The fearful message stuns our trembling ears,
That all is lost! — how shall we hear the tidings? —
Or where for succour will the helpless run? —
And, as the Trojan dames, their town on fire,
Made every fane to echo with their shrieks:
Shall we, on lovers, husbands, brothers, call —
Then frantic hasten to the field of battle,
Where not yet cold the bleeding soldier lies —
How shall we stoop to view each mangl’d warrior:
Wash from their pallid cheeks the crimson stains,
To learn the features of the form we lov’d —
Amidst this dread and agonizing scene:
When boist’rous grief has reach’d supreme distraction;
Thy more than wretched, lost, forlorn Matilda;
Shall raving seek thy pale and bloated corse —
With Oswald’s name drown every dying groan:
And to thy dear remains convulsive cling —
Till this frail heart shall burst — those pulses stop —
And woe itself forget to utter more —
Oh! —

(*Swoons into Oswald’s arms.*)

‘ *Osw.* Help — bring help, Matilda sinks away —’
We must notice, as we pass, the faulty line —

‘ Wakes in thy breast an excess of compassion;’ —

and

and we must censure the bombast of

‘ When boist’rous grief has reach’d supreme distraction :’

but, on the whole, the dialogue, surely, is creditable as a piece of poetry. We select a companion to it, in a different manner. It is the soliloquy of the master-villain, when he feels his fortunes beginning to totter under him :

‘ *Cessford solus.*

‘ The hour approaches that must try my courage :
And tell the present age and future times
How Cessford liv’d — and how he chose to die —
True, I have been ambitious — what of that —
There is a success in the game of life ;
Which if I have not earn’d — I have deserv’d it —
No puling counsels sway’d my daring passions :
No cries of conscience tam’d their bold career ;
Or brought my soul to sue a mean repentance —
What puny minds designate guilt and fraud ;
The vaulting spirit calls the road to greatness —
Then what is fame if not the way I wish it ?
’Tis but a sound made to decoy the fool :
The bait which pedants use to lure the boy ;
And bend the future manhood to their craft —
The sturdy moralist who musters ages ;
To cull the polish’d system of his laws :
He brings not forth a purer code than mine ;
Still must he scourge with iron, or rule with blood —
There be among us in these latter days,
Men who can whine ; and give you tears like girls —
Their nature is too faint at sight of blood :
And catch the megrim when you speak of wounds —
An hundred such would make you half a soldier :
So much the rogues are traitors to their species —
Were I again to pace this round of life ;
I would not trust those weeping fools an hour ;
Whose wat’ry hearts so quickly flood their nostrils —
Had I thus chosen friends of sterner stuff :
Whose breasts are steel’d against these melting humours ;
This day had never witness’d Cessford’s fall :
Or knaves in smiles been scoffers of his fortune.’

After these specimens, we must acknowledge that we are surprised to meet with too many instances of carelessness or want of judgment like the following :

‘ Since the business of life is to die ;
O how hard is the lot of the brave ;
The knave, and the coward, and traitor — Oh fy !
Are secure of a shroud and a grave.’

This is part of a song intitled ‘ The Forlorn Hope.’ — How could the author describe his physician so ludicrously as to spoil the whole effect of his imitation of the scene in *Macbeth* ? or what right has Sir Walter Ker to object to the Doctor’s fine and far-fetched expressions, when he answers him as follows ? —

'He asks not for thy jargon but thy aid—
If in thy pharmacopoly thou hast a drug,
Or in the codex of thy numerous technicals
 A charm is known that can his fever curb,
 Go bring it forth, thou shalt be well requited.
'Physician. I will. (Exit Physician.)'

NOVELS.

Art. 17. *The Heart and the Fancy: or, Valsinore.* A Tale. By Miss Benger. 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

Miss Benger may be said to be a writer of no ordinary class, since her work contains beautiful sentiments, and flashes of real genius. Many of the characters are new; the narrative of Cornelius is very touching; and the whole promises to charm the *heart* and captivate the *fancy* of many readers. Yet the fair author sometimes multiplies incidents till she confuses the story; and she speaks too often in the present tense, as, 'he still *sees* her,' for he still *saw* her, &c., which, in narrative, is inelegant. As, however, we find so much to commend in this novel, we hope to discover no room for censure in any future productions of the same pen.

Art. 18. *The Wife; or Caroline Herbert.* By the late Author of "The Exemplary Mother." (Mrs. Cooper.) 12mo. 2 Vols. 10s. Boards. Becket and Porter. 1813.

This is not only a moral but a religious tale; written with simplicity, and offering an example of virtue which may be useful and interesting to many of our fair readers: particularly such as are speculating on matrimony.—We may recommend it, therefore, not only to those who habitually peruse novels, but to others who may be disposed to amuse an hour or two with a work by which they cannot be injured, and may be benefited, if they please.

Art. 19. *Traits of Nature.* By Miss Burney. Author of *Clarentine*, *Geraldine Fauconberg*, &c. 12mo. 5 Vols. 1l. 10s. Boards. (2d. Edition, 4 Vols.) Colburn.

Landscape-painters and novel-writers take the same liberty with Nature; they do not copy her *en masse*, but select and combine her most striking features, in order to heighten interest and to augment pleasure. With a complete knowledge of all the secrets of her art, Miss Burney has strewed the path, along which she has conducted her hero and heroine, with a singular variety of incidents; and if some of the contrivances and surprises are rather *dramatic* than natural, she would perhaps excuse herself to the critic, by saying that her undertaking required her to avoid all tameness, and to produce a strong effect. A fertile invention, a dexterity of management, and a fluency of style, are manifest in these volumes. Occasionally, however, Miss B. is a little too negligent in her expressions, and betrays a fondness for hard words: but the fable is blended with excellent moral lessons; and, while the mind is amused, it is also improved.

We have before remarked that, together with family-talents, we discern a family-likeness in this lady's productions; and the same idea is excited

excited by the volumes before us. In particular, the heroine, *Adela*, strikes us as bearing a resemblance to *Evelina*, in character and situation.

POLITICS.

Art. 20. *Sur le Système Continental, et sur ses Rapports avec la Suède.* 8vo. pp. 91. Londres. 1813.

Art. 21. *The Continental System, and its Relations with Sweden.* Translated from the French. 8vo. pp. 102. 3s. 6d. Stockdale, jun. 1813.

Although this pamphlet has been advertised in our news-papers as the work of the celebrated Madame de Stael Holstein, the name of that philosophic lady is not inserted in the title-page: but the composition of the tract is such, on the score of ingenuity at least, as would prove no discredit to her. The first part of it consists of a summary view of the principal events which have taken place in Europe, since the rupture of the peace of Amiens; in which the writer attempts no description of battles, and scarcely relates the occurrences of campaigns, but the political plans of Bonaparte are very successfully delineated. To grant peace on moderate terms has been his policy at several times, on the calculation that it was never safe to push an adversary to despair; and a government replaced, after great misfortunes, in any thing like a tolerable situation, is likely to consent to almost any sacrifice which does not involve its overthrow. In the case both of Austria and Prussia, we have seen Bonaparte reserve his richest harvest of acquisition for the season of peace.—After having dwelt some time on the narrative-part of the subject, the author proceeds to delineate what is or rather was called *le système continental*; in other words, “the general exclusion of English merchandise from the ports of the Continent.” The consequences of such a course, to any country that adopts it, are represented to be the ruin of foreign trade, and additional burdens in the shape of taxation in order to supply the new deficiency of revenue. In that style of exaggeration which detracts materially from the merit of this publication, and brings it down to the level of a party-pamphlet, this system is farther represented as ‘estranging armies from their country, and as causing the overthrow of *all* constitutional forms.’

Towards the conclusion of the tract, the author enters on a discussion of the course which, under existing circumstances, it would be most advantageous and honourable for Sweden to pursue. It was in former days a diplomatic adage in the North, that “France was the natural ally of Sweden:” but, says this writer, ‘we have no longer the same France, the same Sweden, or the same Europe. France formerly gave subsidies; now she exacts tribute. Her position, in other days, was distant from Sweden; now she is close to her, and exercises a direct controul over Denmark.’—These considerations are followed by an ardent eulogium on Bernadotte. ‘His country,’ says this writer, ‘was defended by him in her most difficult times; and wherever he has marched, the inhabitants have blessed his endeavours to mitigate the horrors of war.’ In pursuance of this encomiastic style, and as a contrast to the conduct of Bonaparte, an anecdote

is told (p. 31.) of Bernadotte's conduct towards the unfortunate Duke d'Enghien, which has been copied into most of our news-papers, and in the same medium has been contradicted, apparently by a French emigrant, who asserts that the Duke was not at Paris, nor absent from his regiment, at the period in question. If this counter statement be authentic, it in course militates against the accuracy and respectability of the pamphlet.

The question of co-operation on the part of Sweden with England is next examined, and decided, as our readers may anticipate, in the affirmative. The cession of Guadaloupe to Sweden is represented as a desirable equivalent for a participation in the war with France; and we see with regret that a similar course of reasoning is pursued with respect to the acquisition of Norway: to which, at present, the measures of Bernadotte seem to be actually directed.

On the whole, this is evidently a kind of manifesto in support of the conduct of Bernadotte, and of his claims to the confidence of the Swedish people. The chief recommendation of the pamphlet is a considerable compass of philosophical reflection; and its great drawback is the want of due allowances on the other side of the question. Bonaparte's violent and odious tyranny is repeatedly brought forwards, without any accompanying admission that the revolting part of his character has produced a general detestation of him, and has rendered him incomparably less dangerous than he would otherwise have been, to the independence of foreign countries. —The translation into English, published here nearly at the same time with the French copy, is evidently a hasty composition.

Art. 22. *Considerations on Political Economy.* 8vo. pp. 21.

Printed by Bulmer, London. 1813.

This little tract consists less of a series of reasoning than of a list of propositions, on the subject of political economy; and the writer appears to have had in view the diffusion of the more prominent truths of the science, rather than the enunciation of new doctrines. The following are examples of his mode of composition:

'The value of every thing consists in its use; the use of every thing in consumption. Consumption is the realization of value. — All that we grow or manufacture would be of no value, did we not use and consume it. Yet the idea of consuming is too often combined with that of poverty, the idea of riches with hoarding; though the first tends to increase, the latter to check production; for there can be no inducement to raise what is not to be enjoyed. —The wealth of England consists in increased production, called forth and upheld by increased consumption. The consumption of England is greater than that of every other country, and of course its production.'

'The division of labour, by increasing the sum or stock of labour, tends to lessen its price. The invention of, and improvements in machinery, and every thing that lessens the necessity of labour, lessens its price.

'On the other hand, what makes labour scarce, raises its price: thus the employment of men as soldiers and sailors by government, of servants in families, by lessening the sum of labour for other purposes, raises its price and improves its situation. It has been con-

sidered policy to check as much as possible any rise in the price of labour.

On a few points, such as the principles of taxation, (p. 18.) the author ventures to state novel views of a subject. He disapproves of all taxes, such as those on windows, which check the trade of glass and glaziers, and limit our enjoyment of light. Even coaches and other pleasure-carriages should, according to him, be free from public burdens; both on account of their convenience, and to avoid discouraging the branches of manufacture which are required for their construction. His plan would be to make revenue arise more directly from the income of the individual: avoiding to tax consumption except in cases in which, as in the instance of spiritous liquors, health is concerned; or in which policy requires the discouragement of a foreign article. — Whatever may be thought of this reasoning, the tract, as far as it is explanatory, is intitled to approbation; the science of political œconomy being unfortunately too little understood.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 23. *Who fares best, the Christian or the Man of the World?* or, the advantages of a Life of real Piety compared with a Life of real Dissipation. By Colonel (now Major-General) Burn of the Royal Marines, Author of "The Christian Officer's complete Armour," &c. 3d Edition. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Mathews and Leigh.

A dialogue between Horatio and Eugenio, in which the latter illustrates, in a very easy and familiar way, the truth of St. Paul's doctrine, that "Godliness is profitable for all things, *having the promise of the life that now is*, as well as of that which is to come." That the man, whose mind is imbued with the true religious principle, has more genuine pleasure than worldly dissipation can afford, is a maxim acknowledged by all the wise; and Col. Burn's little book is valuable in as much as it is calculated to impress this sentiment on the generality of readers: but we think that he is liable to the charge of incorrect and extravagant representation, when he describes 'the true believer as *having every thing his own way*.' The pious man, from a steady persuasion of the wisdom and goodness of Divine Providence, cheerfully submits to the will of God: but it is a perversion of ideas to say that 'he has every thing his own way;' for this implies that he has something to do with the appointment of things, or, to use Col. Burn's familiar but not allowable expression, that his will 'is sweetly mingled with the will of God.' The Deity wills, and the creature acquiesces. Col. B. expresses his meaning better subsequently, when he says, 'All Christians give up their wills to God.' Indeed, he afterward observes that 'God does not always give his children what they ask;' a remark which will not agree with the preceding assertion that they have *every thing their own way*. We take notice of this part of the author's picture of the advantages of religion, because glaring inconsistencies ought not to appear in a popular work. — Eugenio triumphs in the argument: but Horatio, like Felix, defers the full consideration of the important subject to a more convenient season. Eugenio is very Calvinistic.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 24. *Pretensions to a final Analysis of the Nature and Origin of Sublimity, Style, Beauty, Genius, and Taste; with an Appendix, explaining the Causes of the Pleasure which is derived from Tragedy.* By the Rev. B. Barrett. 8vo. pp. 173. Boards. Murray. 1812.

If our readers consider this title-page to a volume of 173 pages, they will rightly conclude that some at least of the subjects there mentioned cannot be very thoroughly analyzed; and that they are here presented with little more than a rapid and superficial sketch of this interesting field of inquiry. Mr. Barrett begins with a brief account of the several theories of Longinus, Blair, and Burke, concerning the source of the sublime; and he successfully exposes the weak points of Burke's argument, by pointing out many sublime objects which excite no terror in the beholder. He is not so happy in his endeavour to shew the want of comprehensiveness in Blair's doctrine; and we are still inclined to think that the notion of power is inseparably connected with the sublime. Mr. Barrett's own theory is nearly that of Longinus himself. 'Sublimity in writing is that quality which imparts to it *an air of command*.' (P. 23.) Mr. B. translates the term *μεγαλαυχία* by the phrase '*a sort of command*.' Blair and Boileau had rendered it by "*a noble pride*." The difference is merely nominal in our apprehension; and we should be glad to learn from Mr. Barrett, how he would separate his *air of command* from the consciousness of '*power*,' or from '*a noble pride*?' We think that he is equally indistinct in his remarks on sublimity in objects, considered separately from their sublimity in description; and we cannot approve of his *receipts for attaining sublimity*, which he imagines are wanting to supply a defect in the treatise of Longinus. Still we would not be understood to deny the praise of considerable reading and reflection to Mr. Barrett; and we recommend all lovers of these abstract meditations to peruse his volume. The latter part of the book we estimate the most highly; and we are pleased to see the tribute of just applause which the author bestows on the philosophical acumen of St. Augustine.

Art. 25. *The Druid; a Series of Miscellaneous Essays.* 8vo. pp. 236. Printed at Glasgow. 1812.

An instructive and entertaining miscellany is here presented to us. The essays, indeed, are of very various degrees of merit; all of them, perhaps, bear more or less the marks of hasty composition, or at least of youthful and imperfect taste; and the grammatical errors are too numerous; but much knowledge is scattered throughout. An uniform vein of good feeling pervades the volume; and we think that few readers, especially of the younger class of students, can rise unimproved or unamused from the company of *The Druid*.

No. 1. 'The Seer of Glen-Myvyr, a Tale,' in the manner of Ossian, was as little adapted to our taste as any paper in the collection; and indeed we regarded it as a very inauspicious beginning. The short common-place in No. 2. 'On the transitory Nature of Wealth and Grandeur, exemplified by the Fate of Don Emanuel de Souza,'

Souza,' pleased us much better. The stanzas descriptive of the morning, in No. 3. 'On Early Rising,' do not possess sufficient magic to induce us to quit our beds a moment sooner than is our custom. No. 4. 'The Heir of Strathgartney, a metrical Tale,' contains much attractive matter for the lovers of the genuine simplicity which is to be found only in the *New-old-ballad-style*: but we have repeatedly lamented our inability to appreciate, and consequent unworthiness to enjoy, such melodious musings. No. 5. 'Evaline; or the pernicious Effects of too much Indulgence to Children,' is a good moral story, but rather too hackneyed in incident, and not half so impressive in the denouement (though more gentle, perchance,) as the "Modern Griselda." In No. 6. we have 'A Biographical Sketch of the Life and Character of Hamlet Prince of Denmark,' which adds some interesting particulars from Saxo Grammaticus to our immortal Shakspeare's story; and No. 7. gives a very full account of the noxious winds, called the Simoom, Kamsin, Harmattan, Samiel, and Sirocco. The versification of the 34th and 35th chapters of Isaiah, in the 8th number, we cannot commend; and the 'Delineation of Humour,' in the 9th, has nothing particular to distinguish it. The 'Definition of Courage' in the 10th is rather prosing; but 'Eugene and Caroline' in the 11th number is a very touching little story. — We can specify only a few of the remaining papers. The essay 'On the Rites of Buddha' is worth reading; as containing a sufficient abstract of the information to be found in longer accounts of the Ceylonese Messiah. The paper on 'Tulipomania' is very curious; and the explanation of that most singular species of gambling, which prevailed in Holland, principally in the years 1634, 5, 6, 7, will serve, as the author suggests, for a popular illustration of the *mystery* of stock-jobbing. Number 20. 'On the moral Effects of contemplating the Heavens,' is a very pious and philosophical essay. We are happy, therefore, to be able to give a very good report, on the whole, of *The Druid*.

Art. 26. *An Essay on Mind*, and its moral Education. Crown 8vo. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

Considerable information is conveyed in this small volume, relating to the laws which regulate the connection between mind and matter, or, more properly speaking, between mental and bodily phenomena. The author does not pretend to much originality: but he has selected, arranged, and abridged the remarks of some well-known writers on these interesting topics. We have indeed, at times, reason to complain of a want of precision in his language; and brief as this compendium of philosophy is, we must censure an occasional superfluity of statement. The tautology of the first sentence, for example, has too many parallels: 'Arrogance and a contentious disposition, engendering animosity, will be found, on inquiry, to be the common sources of disturbance to the peace and harmony of mankind,' &c. &c. Several of the detached reflections are worthy of quotation, from the manner in which old thoughts are reproduced. We shall cite one of these "old friends with new faces."

‘*On the Association of Ideas.*’

‘Every one knows the effect and durability of early and absurd associations; as those of fear with darkness, and disgust with even beautiful objects of the reptile kind. Habits of thinking and acting also hold the mind in a thralldom as potent as has been conceived of the spells of magic. Many species of vice and debauchery are persisted in from habit, even when the gratification derived from them is confessedly little, and the destruction attendant on them evidently certain.’ (P. 14.)

Sometimes, good and sound observations are mingled with very weak and untenable positions. For instance, what can be more indistinct and confused than the definitions of *reasoning*, and of *judgment*, (i. e. *judging*) in the following passage; or more unphilosophical than referring the production of wit to the same origin with that of the two acts or two modifications of one act of mind just mentioned? Yet the definition of *wit* itself, and of *humour* as contradistinguished from *wit*, is surely ingenious, and partly if not entirely satisfactory. Let us attend to both the sentences. ‘The mind has the power of holding in review a series of perceptions or ideas, and *judging* of their similarity, discordance, or other relative qualities; and this act of the mind may, in its operation, be called *reasoning*; and in its conclusion, *judgment* (i. e. *judging*.) By this power we are also enabled to perceive those combinations of similitudes which we call wit; and those stubborn dissonances of things combined, or those resemblances of discordant things, which we call humour.’ We are referred, in the note, to *Addison’s papers in the Spectator* for an account of wit; and to *Fielding’s preface to Joseph Andrews* for an account of humour. We would add a reference to an essay by Congreve, for the benefit of our readers; and for the benefit of the author we would recommend him carefully to reconsider Locke’s celebrated distinction between wit and judgment. — We are on the whole well pleased with this manual of metaphysics.

Art. 27. *Hora Sinica*: Translations from the Popular Literature of the Chinese. By the Rev. Robert Morrison, Protestant Missionary at Canton. 8vo. pp. 71. 3s. Boards. Black and Parry. 1812.

Every authentic account of the state of Chinese knowledge (if such a phrase be admissible) has not only proved it to be stationary, and to have continued so for a long series of years, but has also shewn that it stopped in the first instance at a very low degree of advancement. The magnified antiquity and the studious self-concealment of that extraordinary people are unerring proofs of their ignorance; and it is curious to observe, after their undue exaltation by earlier and more credulous travellers, how much in late years “a plain tale has put them down.” Their scientific attainments have ended as a fable, or have sunken as to real substance into nothing; and in their religious, moral, and legislative codes, we discover the folly without the innocence of children. In a word, a nation without any sense of honour is a phenomenon which can only excite our compassion, when our disgust is surmounted. Excepting great dexterity in some mechanical arts, what is the amount of their acquisitions?

These

These specimens of the popular literature of the Chinese fully confirm, and admirably illustrate, the late accounts which we have received of their manners, customs, and character. The translator is a most respectable and useful man, indefatigably employed on a task which we would not willingly regard as hopeless, however slow must be its success; namely, the diffusion of the Gospel over that populous country, by means of a correct version of the Scriptures into the native language. He has published the Acts of the Apostles from a Roman Catholic version, improved by his own careful revision; and subsequently the Gospel of St. Luke, the fruit of his own labours. In the same cautious manner, and constantly availing himself of the aid of a learned Chinese whom he has retained, he is advancing to the remaining books of the New Testament.

The preface proceeds to inform us that the Directors of the Missionary Society guarantee the genuineness of the specimens of Chinese literature which are exhibited in these translations. The first is 'The Three-character Classic; on the Utility and Honours of Learning;' in the original, "San-tai-King:" which is the first of four small tracts that are put into the hands of children in China, and it is childish enough most assuredly. The second is 'The Great Science,' "Ta-Hio;" which is more solemn, but equally empty. The third is the account of 'Foe;' an unintelligible rhapsody in parts, and in parts excessively foolish. As a specimen, we select the following short passage:

'It is written in the book *Pu-yew*, that *Foe* was born of the royal family *Chai-li*. He exhibited great wisdom and splendour; and was manifest in every place. Wherever he sat cross-legged, the earth produced the golden *lien* flower. He walked seven steps to the east, west, north and south; with the finger of his right hand he pointed to heaven; with that of his left he pointed to the earth, and speaking with the voice of a lion, said, "Above, below, and all around there is none more honourable than I." He was born on the 8th day, of the fourth moon, of the 24th year, of the reign of King *Chao*; during the dynasty *Chen*.'

The remaining 'Translations' are equally unmeaning, or useless, for any purpose but that of shewing the *literary character* of the people who can admire them; and in perfect silliness we know nothing equal to the 'Discourse dehorting from eating Beef, delivered under the Person of an Ox.' Yet the influence of this ox is so great in China, that perhaps one in twenty persons (some say one in ten) will not eat beef.

Art. 28. *The Letters of the British Spy*. 12mo. pp. 215. Printed at Baltimore in America; and reprinted for Sharpe and Hailes, London. 1812. Price 5s. 6d. Boards.

These Letters obtained a very rapid and extensive popularity in America, where they first appeared in a daily paper, and afterward ran through four editions in their present state. The last edition, from which this reprint is made, was taken from a copy which had gone through the hands of the author, and was, consequently, revised and corrected. 'Common fame,' the publisher informs us, 'has decided the work to be the fruit of an American pen:' but it is written in the

the character of a young Englishman of rank ; who is supposed to correspond with a member of the British Parliament, during a tour through the United States in the year 1803.

The subjects of the letters are very various. Topography, character, literature, politics, geology, &c. &c., pass in swift and successive review under the author's observation. The style possesses a liveliness, and a force, which fix the attention ; though the first occasionally degenerates into flippancy, and the last swells into bombast. — When we lately reviewed a work from the United States *, we had the pleasure of being able to congratulate that country on the growing honours of its literature ; and the present composition, although destitute of the humour which embellished its precursor, possesses a firmer and a higher tone : but alas ! the sanguine hope which we then expressed, that mutual conciliation would heal the unhappy differences between the two most naturally allied countries in the world, has ended in bitter disappointment. This is not the place, however, to do more than to lament the painful warfare in which we are engaged ; and to pray most fervently for its speedy termination.

Perhaps an extract from 'The British Spy' will be the best mode of conveying an idea of its style, if not of its general merits ; and we are sure that it will be more amusing than any criticisms which we could offer on these letters. The author is making some remarks on eloquence, and on the peculiar characters of several American orators ; and he has just been adverting to Bacon's fanciful thought "*that it is agreeable to nature, that there should be some transmissions and operations from spirit to spirit without the mediation of the senses.*" † He then proceeds, after an allusion to the story of the depression of Anthony's spirit in the presence of Cæsar, with his own observations :

'Yet if there be not something of this secret intercourse from spirit to spirit, how does it happen that one speaker shall gradually invade and benumb all the faculties of my soul as if I were handling a torpedo ; while another shall awaken and arouse me, like the clangor of the martial trumpet ? How does it happen that the first shall infuse his poor spirit into my system, lethargize my native intellects, and bring down my powers exactly to the level of his own ? or that the last shall descend upon me like an angel of light, breathe new energies into my frame, dilate my soul with his own intelligence, exalt me into a new and nobler region of thought ; snatch me from the earth at pleasure, and wrap me to the seventh heaven ? And, what is still more wonderful, how does it happen that these different effects endure so long after the agency of the speaker has ceased ; inasmuch, that if I sit down to any intellectual exercise, after listening to the first speaker, my performance shall be unworthy even of me, and the numb-fish visible and tangible in every sentence ? whereas, if I enter

* The collection of Essays intitled "Salmagundi;" See our 16th Vol., N. S., p. 418.

† Animal magnetism (not to mention other *enthusiastic impostures*) must have taken its rise or rather gained its success from some such notion as this.

on the same amusement, after having attended to the last-mentioned orator, I shall be astonished at the elevation and vigour of my own thoughts ; and if I meet, accidentally, with the same production, a month or two afterwards, when my mind has lost the inspiration, shall scarcely recognise it for my own work !

‘ Whence is all this ? To me it would seem that it must proceed either from the subtile commerce between the spirits of men, which Lord Verulam notices, and which enables the speaker, thereby, to identify his hearer with himself ; or else that the mind of man possesses, independently of any volition on the part of its proprietor, a species of pupillary faculty of dilating and contracting itself, in proportion to the pencil of the rays of light which the speaker throws upon it ; which dilatation or contraction, as in the case of the eye, cannot be immediately and abruptly altered.

‘ Whatever may be the solution, the fact, I think, is certainly as I have stated it : and it is remarkable that the same effect is produced, though perhaps in a less degree, by perusing books into which different degrees of spirit and genius have been infused. I am acquainted with a gentleman who never sits down to a composition, wherein he wishes to shine, without previously reading, with intense application, half a dozen pages of his favourite Bolingbroke. Having taken the character and impulse of that writer’s mind, he declares that he feels his pen to flow with a spirit not his own ; and that, if in the course of his work, his powers begin to languish, he finds it easy to revive and charge them afresh from the same never-failing source.

‘ If these things be not visionary, it becomes important to a man, for a new reason, what books he reads, and what company he keeps ; since, according to Lord Verulam’s notion, an influx of the spirits of others may change the native character of his heart and understanding before he is aware of it ; or, according to the other suggestion, he may so habitually contract the pupil of his mind as to be disqualified for the comprehension of a great subject, and fit only for microscopic observations. Whereas by keeping the company, and reading the works of men of magnanimity and genius only, he may receive their qualities by subtile transmission, and, eventually, get the eye, the ardour, and the enterprise of an eagle.

‘ But whither am I wandering ? Permit me to return. Admitting the correctness of the principles formerly mentioned, it would seem to be a fair conclusion, that whenever an orator wishes to know what effect he has wrought on his audience, he should coolly and conscientiously propound to himself this question. Have I myself, throughout my oration, felt those clear and cogent convictions of judgment, and that pure and exalted fire of the soul, with which I wished to inspire others ? For, he may rely on it, that he can no more impart (or to use Bacon’s word, transmit) convictions and sensations which he himself has not, at the time, sincerely felt, than he can convey a clear title to property in which he himself has no title.’

In taking leave of ‘ *The British Spy*,’ we must assure our readers that every letter contains something worth their perusal. Several specific faults in expression occur, besides the more general defects

to which we have alluded : but we shall pass them over, only warning those who are unacquainted with the precise value of Signor Recupero's and Mr. Brydone's testimonies concerning the lavas of Mount *Ætna*, that some degree of caution will be necessary in their admission of all that is here quoted from those authors.

SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 29. *Christianity an intellectual and individual Religion*: delivered in Renshaw-street, Liverpool, October 20. 1811, in a Chapel opened on that Day for the Worship of the One undivided God. By John Grundy. 8vo. 1s. Eaton.

Taking for his text Romans, xiv. 4, 5., the preacher erects the three following propositions on that passage; 1st, that Christianity addresses itself to the understanding; 2dly. that it is an individual concern, having no connection with worldly policy; 3dly, that an explicit avowal, by each individual, of the result of his inquiry, will be acceptable to Almighty God. Each of these points is argued with ability. Mr. G. contends that 'no man, in strict propriety, can be said to believe what he does not understand;' and to the instances usually adduced in proof of the contrary position, he replies in a manner which shews that he is able to distinguish correctly: without which faculty, sound reasoning cannot be prosecuted.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We would very readily comply with the request of W. F., who dates from Bethnal House, but we know no more now of the publication to which he refers *than the child unborn*, to use a homely simile. — Our 'library' must be as large as Westminster Abbey, to contain all the publications which come into our hands in a long series of years, according to our Correspondent's supposition.

It does not appear, by our records, that the second part of the tract mentioned in the letter from Saltcoats has ever reached us.

From a particular circumstance, we have not been able to notice, in this month's Number, the work which is the subject of a recent letter from Mr. B. of the Temple: but we hope to attend to it in our next Review.

NOTICE.

The APPENDIX to Vol. LXX. of the M. R. is published with this Number, and consists as usual of a number of articles in FOREIGN LITERATURE, with the *Title, Index, &c.*, for the Volume. Any of our country-readers, who do not receive it with this Review, will please to observe that the two Numbers should be forwarded together; and that, if they are not, the fault lies with the bookseller, or in the omission of an order for that purpose.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JUNE, 1813.

ART. I. *A Selection of Irish Melodies ; with Symphonies and Accompaniments, by Sir John Stevenson, Mus. Doc. and Characteristic Words by Thomas Moore, Esq. Folio. Four Numbers. 15s. each.* Power, London and Dublin.

We feel convinced that all our poetical readers will thank us for stepping rather out of the strict line of our duty, in pursuing the lyrical bard of Ireland to the piano forte. When a collection of national airs is accompanied by a number of equally national songs, it surely is not the musician or the musical amateur alone who is interested in such a publication ; but every lover of song, and every lover of his country, must exult at hearing the melodies of antient minstrels rescued from the degrading association of unworthy poetry, and consecrated anew to courage, to love, and to patriotism, by strains of a higher mood. Delighted as we have been while listening to the softer muse and music of the present author, a feeling of unmixed and deeper satisfaction has been excited by the more noble and more manly display of genius which is now before us. It is not only that portion of his readers who were ever disposed to look indulgently on his youthful errors, whom Mr. Moore has here farther conciliated ; in his own words, otherwise applied, ‘he has won the wise, who frown’d before, to smile at last :’ but we cannot give a clearer or more concise view of his objects in this work, than by quoting an extract from his letter to Sir John Stevenson, printed by the publisher of the Irish Melodies. Mr. Moore thus expresses himself on the design then in agitation :

“ I feel very anxious that a work of this kind should be undertaken. We have too long neglected the only talent for which our English neighbours ever deigned to allow us any credit *. Our national

* This is a little too querulous ; and indeed, much as we are disposed to allow the justice of the accusations of Ireland against England in general, we must still think that this author is often too loud in his tone of complaint. Can such a tone produce the desired

national music has never been properly collected *; and while the composers of the continent have enriched their Operas and Sonatas with melodies borrowed from Ireland, very often without even the honesty of acknowledgement, we have left these treasures in a great degree unclaimed and fugitive. Thus our airs, like too many of our countrymen, for want of protection at home, have passed into the service of foreigners. But we are come, I hope, to a better period both of politics and music; and how much they are connected, in Ireland at least, appears too plainly in the tone of sorrow and depression which characterizes most of our early songs. — The task which you propose to me of adapting words to these airs is by no means easy. The poet, who would follow the various sentiments which they express, must feel and understand that rapid fluctuation of spirits, that unaccountable mixture of gloom and levity, which composes the character of my countrymen, and has deeply tinged their music. Even in their liveliest strains we find some melancholy note intrude, some minor third, or flat seventh, which throws its shade as it passes, and makes even mirth interesting. — If Burns had been an Irishman, (and I would willingly give up all our claims upon Ossian for him,) his heart would have been proud of such music; and his genius would have made it immortal.

“Another difficulty (which however is purely mechanical) arises from the irregular structure of many of those airs, and the lawless kind of metre which it will in consequence be necessary to adapt to them. In these instances the poet must write, not to the eye, but to the ear; and must be content to have his verses of that description which Cicero mentions — “*Quos si cantu spoliaveris, nuda remanebit oratio.*” — That beautiful air “The Twisting of the Rope,” which has all the romantic character of the Swiss *Rans des Vaches*, is one of those wild and sentimental rakes which it will not be very easy to tie down in sober wedlock with poetry †. However, notwithstanding all these difficulties, and the very little talent which I can bring to surmount them, the design appears to me so truly national, that I shall feel much pleasure in giving it all the assistance in my power.”

We have only to add to this extract another short quotation from the ‘Prefatory Letter to the Marchioness of D—,’ in order to put the general reader in full possession of the author’s own estimate of the task which he has undertaken. To those who

conciliation? At the same time, we are anxious not to be included in the number of those who condemn the popular feeling of the work. On the contrary, as Mr. M. admirably contends, it is addressed to the higher orders of society; and their patriotism may bear a little excitement without any mischief. *Rev.*

“* The writer forgot, when he made this assertion, that the public are indebted to Mr. Bunting for a very valuable collection of Irish music; and that the patriotic genius of Miss Owenson has been employed on some of our finest airs.”

† The author afterward confesses that these observations on the character of the air in question were hastily advanced.

are

are interested in musical history, this 'Prefatory Letter' will afford considerable instruction and amusement. We shall be contented to observe that Mr. M. professes the more common, and surely the sounder, opinion of those, who do not carry the antiquity of the Irish music (that is, of its finest and most popular airs) much beyond 'the last disgraceful century,' as he expresses himself: but, assuredly, he means the last but one. 'Those wild and melancholy strains,' he continues, 'were at once the offspring and the solace of grief, and were applied to the mind, as music was formerly to the body, *Decantare loca Dolentia*.*' In the subjoined passages, will be seen the extreme ardour and enthusiasm which inspired the poet in his musical reveries, for we cannot help thinking that a part at least of his eulogium on the "Irish Melodies" deserves that title. Still, the very fancy which he here displays fitted him the more thoroughly for his attractive labour; and the result has been proportionably successful:

'It has often been remarked, and oftener felt, that our music is the truest of all comments upon our history. The tone of defiance, succeeded by the languor of despondency — a burst of turbulence dying away into softness — the sorrows of one moment lost in the levity of the next — and all that romantic mixture of mirth and sadness†, which is naturally produced by the efforts of a lively temperament to shake off, or forget, the wrongs which lie upon it; such are the features of our history and character which we find strongly and faithfully reflected in our music; and there are many airs which, I think, it is difficult to listen to, without recalling some period or event, to which *their expression seems peculiarly applicable*. Sometimes, when the strain is open and spirited, yet shaded here and there by a mournful recollection, *we can fancy* that we behold the brave allies of Montrose marching to the aid of the royal cause, notwithstanding all the perfidy of Charles and his ministers, and remembering just enough of past sufferings to enhance the generosity of their present sacrifice. The plaintive melodies of Carolan take us back to the times in which he lived; when our poor countrymen were driven to worship their God in caves, or to quit for ever the land of their birth (like the bird that abandons the nest which human touch has violated); and

* We call the attention of our readers, particularly, to a confession which Mr. M. now makes, 'that few of the Irish airs, of a *civilised* description, can lay claim to quite so ancient a date as Mr. Pinkerton allows to the Scotch,' viz. the end of the sixteenth century. This confession will add force to what we shall presently remark.

† This description of Hibernia, *δυσκρον γυλασσον*, beautiful as it is, would surely be more intelligibly deduce from poetical than from musical evidence. *Rev.*

in many a song do we hear the last farewell of the exile, mingling regret for the ties which he leaves at home with sanguine expectations of the honours that await him abroad — such honours as were won on the field of Fontenoy, where the valour of Irish Catholics turned the fortune of the day in favour of the French, and extorted from George the Second that memorable exclamation, “Cursed be the laws which deprive me of such subjects!”

Having thus prepared our readers for the mixture of politics and poetry which we are about to lay before them, we shall select some of the words of the songs, and subjoin a few observations on their lyrical and musical character.

First, we must observe how greatly superior the pathetic and melancholy songs are to those of a livelier description: we mean in point of poetry: as to their music, we shall find occasion to make a remark of a different tendency. We do not even except those in which spirit and tenderness are united. Pure pathos seems to be this author's forte. ‘*Go where Glory waits thee!*’ and ‘*Oh breathe not his Name,*’ are good specimens of this manner in the first number: but our decided favourites are the two which we transcribe, and which cannot be mutilated without being destroyed. We therefore present the whole to our readers.

1.

‘When he who adores thee has left but the name
Of his fault and his sorrows behind,
Oh! say, wilt thou weep when they darken the fame
Of a life that for thee was resign’d?
Yes, weep! and however my foes may condemn,
Thy tears shall efface their decree;
For heav’n can witness, tho’ guilty to them,
I have been but too faithful to thee!

2.

‘With thee were the dreams of my earliest love,
Ev’ry thought of my reason was thine: —
In my last humble pray’r to the Spirit above
Thy name shall be mingled with mine!
Oh! bless’d are the lovers and friends who shall live
The days of thy glory to see;
But the next dearest blessing that Heaven can give
Is the pride of thus dying for thee!’*

* These words, the author says, allude to a story in an old Irish MS. However this may be, they have that double application to patriotic and to personal attachment which is so touching in many of these poems. To awaken private feelings of affection, at the same time that we inspirit the love of our country, is an effect which it requires no common genius to produce, but Mr. M. produces it at pleasure.

‘The

'*The Harp that once through Tara's Halls*' succeeds to this mournful effusion, and is an adaptation of new words to "*Gramachree*," as beautiful in their kind as Sheridan's "*Had I a Heart for Falsehood fram'd*." — '*Fly not yet*' is as lively and interesting as it is unexceptionable in point of moral design, although it may offend the prudish ear by some warm expressions; and '*Oh! think not my Spirits are always as light*' is enchanting. Pursuant, however, to the plan which our limits impose on us, of selecting only the compositions in which Mr. Moore has touched a chord of unmixed tenderness, we shall turn to still more moving strains. '*Tho' the last Glimpse of Erin*' ("Air, Coulin,") is of this description: but the following song again possesses the species of merit for which we are seeking, in the highest degree:

1.

'As a beam o'er the face of the waters may glow,
While the tide runs in darkness and coldness below,
So the cheek may be tinged with a warm sunny smile,
Tho' the cold heart to ruin runs darkly the while.

2.

'One fatal remembrance, one sorrow that throws
Its bleak shade alike o'er our joys and our woes,
To which life nothing darker or brighter can bring,
For which joy has no balm, and affliction no sting: —

3.

'Oh! this thought in the midst of enjoyment will stay;
Like a dead leafless branch in the summer's bright ray,
The beams of the warm sun play round it in vain —
It may smile in his light, but it blooms not again!

In the second number of the first volume, we have two more songs of our chosen kind, and we shall quote them both. The first is set to the air already mentioned, "*The Twisting of the Rope*."

1.

'How dear to me the hour when daylight dies,
And sun-beams melt along the silent sea;
For then sweet dreams of other days arise,
And mem'ry breathes her vesper sigh to thee!

2.

'And, as I watch the line of light that plays
Along the smooth wave tow'rd the burning West,
I long to tread that golden path of rays,
And think 'twould lead to some bright isle of rest.'

The second song is adapted to that simple and touching air,
 “*My Lodging is on the cold Ground.*”

1.

‘ Believe me if all those endearing young charms,
 Which I gaze on so fondly to day,
 Were to change by to morrow, and fleet in my arms
 Like fairy-gifts, fading away—
 Thou would’st still be ador’d as this moment thou art,
 Let thy loveliness fade as it will;
 And around the dear ruin each wish of my heart
 Would entwine itself verdantly still.

2.

‘ It is not while beauty and youth are thine own,
 And thy cheeks unprofan’d by a tear,
 That the fervour and faith of a soul can be known
 To which time will but make thee more dear.—
 Oh! the heart that has truly lov’d never forgets,
 But as truly loves on to the close;
 As the sun-flower turns on her god when he sets
 The same look which she turn’d when he rose.’

In this number are many gay and spirited productions, from which we may select a few lines as specimens of their style, before we conclude.

No. I. of the second volume offers nothing that is exactly worthy of association with the foregoing selections in their peculiar manner; although many stanzas are scattered throughout, which possess exquisite effect where they are inserted, and some will bear detachment from their context. A few of these we shall offer to our readers at the end of our critique.

Number 4. contains also some bold and animating verses; especially the song intitled ‘*Avenging and bright be the swift sword of Erin!*’ and several lines in ‘*The Prince’s Day:*’* but our attention is rivetted by one of the sweetest little ballads, wild as it is, which we ever read, called ‘*Love’s Young Dream.*’

1.

‘ Oh! the days are gone, when beauty bright
 My heart’s chain wove;
 When my dream of life from morn till night
 Was love, still love!
 New hope may bloom;
 And days may come
 Of milder, calmer beam,

* We should not omit to mention ‘*She is far from the Land,*’ in this number, as another instance of the union of love and patriotism to which we have alluded.

But there's nothing half so sweet in life
As love's young dream.
Oh ! there's nothing half so sweet in life
As love's young dream !

2.

' Tho' the bard to purer fame may soar
When wild youth's past ;
" Tho' he win the wise, who frown'd before,
To smile at last,"
He'll never meet
A joy so sweet
In all his noon of fame,
As when first he sung to woman's ear
His soul-felt flame,
And, at every close, she blush'd to hear
The one lov'd name !

3.

• Oh ! that hallow'd form is ne'er forgot
Which first love traced ;
Still it lingering haunts the greenest spot
On memory's waste !
'Twas odour fled
As soon as shed,
'Twas Morning's winged dream !
'Twas a light that ne'er can shine again
On life's dull stream !
Oh ! 'twas light that ne'er can shine again
On life's dull stream.'

This is language that speaks to every heart. Where, we would ask, is the antient classical trifle remaining, that comes so thoroughly "home to our business and our bosom?" If any where, it must be sought in the Greek anthology : for, as to Horace, the tenderest (in a few passages) of the Latin painters of every-day life and feeling, he has nothing approaching to this individual reality of regret ; and all the glow and softness of Tibullus are suddenly restrained and rendered of none effect by bestial degradation. Ovid, indeed, in his inimitable "*Tristia*," (in its kind far the most perfect of his works,) breathed the true strain of personal affliction. Still we cannot think, with all these allowances, that the antient poets had half the tenderness, half the love, and other noble feelings, that even the inferior minstrel of modern and of Christian times has often manifested.

The musical part of this very popular publication forms so important an object in it, that we should not discharge our duty to our readers without making some remarks on its merits,

although perhaps it is a subject not strictly adapted to literary criticism. We are aware, too, that in this instance the taste of the public is so decidedly pledged in favour of the "Melodies," that a critic would stand little chance of an unbiassed hearing. However, we are not disposed materially to dissent from the favourable opinion which has been generally formed, and we therefore offer our remarks with the more confidence and satisfaction. — The airs, it is well known, are selected from those which have been, or at least are supposed to have been, in use in Ireland for so long a period of time as to have become nationalized in that country. We express ourselves cautiously on this subject, because we could have wished that the work had been accompanied with some good reasons for the allowance of the claims of these airs to nationality; and in sundry instances we entertain doubt on the validity of these claims. Many of them, indeed, are known to have been originally composed by Irish bards: others bring themselves home by their subjects and circumstances, names of places, &c. &c. All the remainder, where the authors of them are not known, ought to be shewn to bear such marks of peculiarity of style as are sufficient to naturalize them: but the difficulty of executing such a task must be very great; and we do not wonder that the editor has shrunk from it. Many of the airs are so similar to acknowledged Scotch airs, that we cannot distinguish them *. Others seem to have so little peculiarity, that they may have been produced in England, Italy, or elsewhere. The Irish and Scotch have often been competitors; and we fear that they will hardly agree in the settlements of their airs, any more than in those of their saints, heroes, and poets. In so large a collection as the present, it will naturally be expected that some of the airs should possess more merit and more clearly admissible claims to nationality than others: but, at the same time, that all of them will exhibit something in common with each other, to give them a sort of family resemblance, — *qualis decet esse sororum*. — This last circumstance constitutes the principal ground of objection to all similar collections of national airs. In Scotch tunes, we have a perpetual recurrence of something which reminds the hearer that they were originally adapted to the drone of the bagpipe; while in Welsh melodies, and in those of Ireland, we have a rapid succession of notes, a redundant fullness in the bars and

* When the author talks of the Scotch stealing the Irish airs, as well as the Irish saints, while he offers no specific proof of the former assertion, the story of Dempster "the Saint-Stealer," facetious as it is, proves nothing.

phrases, and (if we do not offend) a sort of jingle which immediately refers their origin to the harp; an instrument not adapted to the display of any prolonged modulation, nor capable of any swell*, or what the Italians call "*sastemuto*."—It will perhaps be said that this is an erroneous view of the matter, because popular airs (which were *songs* in their first origin) would have been formed on the capability of the voice, and not with reference to any instrument: but, although this remark may at first sight seem to carry weight with it, the fact is that all these airs, though composed for the voice, must have been the production of musicians whose ideas had been derived from the music of the harp, or were considerably tinged by its peculiarities; and we are convinced that any person, who will peruse these airs without prejudice, will find that the observation which we have made on them is correct. It would be in vain, therefore, to look for that pathos which the music of Italy, or even of our own country in its antient days, can produce; and which eminently characterizes the best of the Scotch airs. The pathos of those airs in the present collection, which are to be considered as pathetic, arises from different sources; and we are far from saying that they are not calculated to produce their effect: but they certainly are not, *in general*, among the best specimens in the collection†. The livelier airs have a charm which is entirely peculiar, and are as superior to the Scotch tunes of that kind as the Scotch airs of the pathetic kind are superior to those of the Irish. As some collateral support of these remarks, it may be observed that all, or much the greater portion, of the airs to which the Scotch oppose the claims of the Irish are of a melancholy and pathetic nature.

The composition of these tunes is marked by some additional peculiarities to which we shall briefly advert. A great portion of boldness and originality prevails in some of the modulations: but, on the whole, they do not afford much scope for musical

* We are aware of the modern improvements in this instrument; and we anticipate still greater perfection from the ingenuity of M. Dizi: but *some* truth, we fear, must always be found in our objection.

† The following nine airs are the principal of those which can be marked as decidedly pathetic, out of the whole forty-eight. 1. *Coulin*. 2. *Gramachree*. 3. *Believe me when all*. 4. *She is far from the land*. 5. *Banks of Banna*. 6. *Dermot*. 7. *Silent, Oh! Moyle*. 8. *When he who adores thee*. 9. *I saw thy form*. The 5th and 9th have been generally classed as Scotch airs; and the 3d we believe to be English.

criticism. At page 35. of the third part, is an air of rather an extraordinary character. It is in triple time, marked three-eight, and the air runs in phrases of *five* bars each, the cadence falling on every fifth bar. The effect of this may be learnt at once from the *measure* of the poetry. For example ;

‘ Through grief and through danger thy smile hath cheer’d
my way.’ *

We have seen some modern fanciful music, in which this *quintuple* style has been adopted, both for the phrases and for the bars : but we have not before observed it in any old music. The bases and arrangement of the music appear, in our humble opinion, to be executed in a correct and appropriate style by Sir John Stevenson : but we must be permitted sincerely to wish that he had stopped here. His Symphonies, we think, do not by any means manifest equal judgment. They are too frequently in a style that ill accords with the airs which they are to precede or follow ; and which seems rather characterized by a desire of giving opportunities to performers to display their powers of execution, than by a just appreciation of the purpose which they are to answer as attendants on the principal air or melody †. We must also be allowed to declare our entire disapprobation of a practice now grown very common in the musical world, of “harmonizing,” as it is called, tunes which have become popular as single airs. It appears to be supposed that, by this novel species of compo-

* A better instance could not be selected from these volumes, to shew the justice of Mr. M.’s comparison of such numbers (quoted above) to the verses which Cicero mentions. They indeed want music.

† In the ‘Prefatory Letter,’ Mr. Moore notices the practice which is not uncommon in these airs, and in other music of a similar description, of consecutive fifths. This practice is well known to be contrary to a general rule of composition : but, although we cannot concede to Mr. M. any positive beauty in such a succession, we are by no means disposed to deny that the occasional introduction of it produces that pleasing effect which always results from the judicious employment of a licence, or the use of a discord. The rules of composition are generally founded in nature ; and this (as Rousseau, we believe, discovered,) arose from the impossibility of conducting harmony, if the parts could proceed in different modulations or keys at the same time ; which must be the effect of a continued succession of fifths : but this is certainly not the necessary consequence of one such succession, and therefore such a case may very well form an exception to the rule, as it is not within its principle. We may thus, perhaps, account for the occasional adoption of the practice by the great masters to whom Mr. Moore alludes.

sition, the effect of a glee is produced : but that is by no means the case. We conceive that a person sitting down to compose music for one voice, or for several voices, must in general be impressed with very different feelings and conceptions in the two cases. In the first, he would naturally confine his endeavour to the formation of an agreeable air; in doing which, he would be entirely unembarrassed by the idea of attaining any other object; and he would aim at a plain, consistent, manner of dealing with the modulation of which the single voice was capable. In composing for several voices, he would direct his efforts not only to attain a pleasing effect, but to produce it by the union of melody and harmony; and his materials being more various and extensive, his conceptions would naturally be so likewise. Where the effect to be produced required that an additional importance should be given to any one of his voices, he would excite it by the management of the other parts, without creating any awkwardness or inconsistency: but this we believe to be impossible in the innovation of "harmonizing." There the composer has his air ready made: that air must be adapted to some one of his voices; and that voice must take the lead, or the effect of the air cannot be preserved. The consequence is that all the other voices used must be mere accompaniments, not entering at all into the original idea and genius of the composition, but called in solely as substitutes for instrumental accompaniments. In airs which take any considerable compass, it is scarcely possible to do this, because the voices will necessarily interfere and cross each other; and to meet such cases the awkward expedients of repetitions, dropping parts, &c. &c., are adopted; till the auditor is tempted to say as the Chinese did, when "God save the King" was played in parts, "that the air might be very good, if the accompaniments would let it be heard." We do not apply these remarks *particularly* to the specimens before us: but we think that they are generally applicable to them in common with others of the same sort; and we wish rather to reprobate the practice *in toto* than to censure any notorious instance of it. We admire glees and single songs in their places: but we do not admire a kind of composition which confounds both of those species, without possessing the richness and variety of the one, or the vigour and spirit of the other.

We trust that we shall be excused by our readers for this unusual sort of digression. The interest of every fine art claims a share in the attention of those who watch over the "*Belles-Lettres*;" and the great popularity of the present work forms the best defence (if any defence be required) for thus expatiating beyond the limits of our ordinary subjects of observation.

We

We hasten now to conclude our critique, and to relieve the technicality of some of the preceding remarks by our promised selection of detached beauties from the 'Irish Melodies,' beauties which are so abundant, and of so striking a description, as to place the author indisputably at the head of our living song-writers *; and to enable him on some occasions proudly to contend for pre-eminence with Burns himself.

' Drink to her who long
 Hath wak'd the poet's sigh—
 The girl who gave to song
 What gold could never buy !
 Oh ! woman's heart was made
 For minstrel-hands alone ;
 By other fingers play'd
 It yields not half the tone.
 Then here's to her who long
 Hath wak'd the poet's sigh
 The girl who gave to song
 What gold could never buy !' &c. &c.

' *Oh ! blame not the Bard,*' &c. is a sort of excuse (and a most spirited one) for the poet's devotion of his muse to subjects of love and light enjoyment. In better hours, he might have steered a more exalted course :

' But alas for his country ! her pride is gone by
 And that spirit is broken which never would bend ;
 O'er the ruin her children in secret must sigh,
 For 'tis treason to love her, and death to defend !
 Unpriz'd are her sons till they've learned to betray ;
 Undistinguish'd they live if they shame not their sires ;
 And the torch that would light them through dignity's way,
 Must be caught from the pile where their country expires,' &c.

Whether "*The Banks of Banna*" be of Irish or Scotch original, that well-known and delightful air cannot complain of such an associate as the following :

' When thro' life unblest we rove,
 Losing all that made life dear,
 Should some notes we us'd to love
 In days of boyhood meet our ear ;
 Oh ! how welcome breathes the strain,
 Wak'ning thoughts that long have slept—
 Kindling former smiles again
 In faded eyes that long have wept !' &c.

The beautiful air, "*When in death I shall calm recline,*" is dishonoured by the extravagant nonsense (for no gentler term

* Never forgetting, however, the merit of the veteran Dibdin, —his tenderness, his spirit, his humour, and his extraordinary fertility.

will suit the occasion) of the first and third stanzas. It is worse than the scene of the "Bleeding Heart" in Dryden's charming fable. The second stanza is again in good taste :

' When the light of my song is o'er,
Then take my harp to your ancient hall ;
Hang it up at that friendly door
Where weary travellers love to call * :
Then if some bard, who roams forsaken,
Revive it's soft note in passing along,
Oh ! let one thought of its master waken
Your warmest smile for the child of song.'

In another air, the deaths of Fox and Nelson are briefly but worthily lamented :

' Oh ! gone are our beacon lights !
Thou, of the hundred fights !
Thou, on whose burning tongue
Truth, peace, and freedom hung !' &c.

" *Eveleen's Bower*" has some lovely lines, but is too commonly quoted for our selection. The ensuing passage indeed is equally well known, but has something so singularly fanciful about it as to demand insertion. The allusion to the old tradition, in the first four verses, explains itself :

' On Lough Neagh's Bank, as the fisherman strays,
When the clear cold eve's declining,
He sees the round towers of other days
In the wave beneath him shining !
Thus shall memory often, in dreams sublime,
Catch a glimpse of the days that are over ;
Thus sighing look thro' the waves of time
For the long-faded glories they cover !'

With one more extract, we must reluctantly close our examination of this attractive work ; and, although many remaining pathetic strains solicit our regard, and we *had* intended only to listen to the "mournful muse," we shall select a livelier finale, because our readers may wish for some little relief to the sombre tenor of our foregoing quotations. We shall leave them at Mr. Moore's disposal ; and we are sure that they will join with us in hoping soon to see another and another number of 'Irish Melodies.'

' Come, send round the wine, and leave points of belief
To simpleton sages, and reasoning fools ;
This moment's a flower too fair and brief
To be wither'd and stain'd with the dust of the schools.

" * In every house was one or two harps, free to all travellers, who were the more caressed the more they excelled in music."

Your

Your glass may be purple, and mine may be blue;
 But, while they are fill'd from the same bright bowl,
 The fool who would quarrel for difference of hue
 Deserves not the comfort they shed o'er the soul.

2.

• Shall I ask the brave soldier, who fights by my side
 In the cause of mankind, if our creeds agree?
 Shall I give up the friend I have valued and tried,
 If he kneel not before the same altar with me?
 From the heretic girl of my soul shall I fly,
 To seek somewhere else a more orthodox kiss?
 No! perish the hearts and the laws that try
 Truth, valour, or love, by a standard like this!'

ART. II. *Memoirs of Joan d'Arc, or, Du Lys*, commonly called the Maid of Orleans; chiefly from the French of the Abbé Lenglet du Fresnoy: with an Appendix and Notes. By Geo. Ann Grave. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

THIS volume is an abridged translation of the French work intitled *Histoire de Jeanne d'Arc, vierge heroïne et martyre d'état*, published in 1753 by the Abbé Lenglet Dufresnoy; and the Abbé's three duodecimoës are themselves an ill-made epitome of the more extensive biography by Edmond Richer, a syndic of the faculty of theology, who wrote in 1628 a copious *Histoire de la Pucelle d'Orléans*, which was never printed at large, but remains one of the folio manuscripts in the library of the Louvre.

Since the time of Richer, and even since that of Lenglet, many historical discoveries have been made relative to the life of Joan of Arc. The entire third volume of the quarto work, *Notices et Extraits des Manuscrits de la Bibliothèque du Roi*, printed at Paris in 1790, consists of previously unpublished materials respecting the history of that female; and not only the documents preserved in the Parisian libraries and archives are there analyzed, but also those manuscripts of the Vatican which throw so clear a light on the nature and character of the inquisitorial process to which she fell a victim.

To undertake a new life of Joan of Arc, without carefully examining this recent treasury of information concerning her, is not respectful to the public; since it is efficaciously to delay the progress of information and science, by reprinting for circulation the repositories of an ignorance on a particular point which prevails no longer, except with the incurious and the unread. Lenglet's history may be well abridged, but it is not well to abridge Lenglet's history. M. de L'Averdy's critical commentary

commentary on the trial, and on the revised process, was also a supplement which it is unpardonable to overlook.

The birth of Joan of Arc is here placed in 1412; not early enough, we suspect, by three or four years. Her father was a yeoman, and employed her to milk the cows and drive the horses to water; she rode astride, and with all the courage of a boy. Her mother was very religious, and inspired her with great devotion to Saint Katherine, who had a fine church at Fierbois. — Among the persons whose authority powerfully acted on the mind and soul of Joan of Arc, was a Franciscan friar of Troyes, called *Frère Richard*. He was a travelling popular preacher, who collected in Paris congregations of five or six thousand persons; and who had so much influence over the women, that they made bonfires in the streets of their broad bonnets, against which he had been heard to preach in the pulpit.* He supported for a long time the English party in France: but the haughtiness of the Duke of Bedford, while regent for Henry VI., having offended the Duke of Burgundy, who was the real soul of the party which adhered to the treaty of Troyes, Richard, and others of the clergy who leaned on the Duke of Burgundy, changed sides. The political apostacy or conversion of Brother Richard took place about or soon after the year 1422. To him Joan of Arc was so passionately attached, that she was accused of having received the sacrament at his hands three times one Christmas-day; and after her execution, in 1431, a Dominican inquisitor, who was preaching against Joan of Arc, publicly described her as misled by Brother Richard the Cordelier. (See Villaret, Vol. xiv. p. 257. and xv. p. 77.) The decisive and critical influence of this itinerant preacher, over the intellectual habits and singular conduct of Joan of Arc, has too much escaped the attention of her biographers. The accurate knowledge of the state of France, which he possessed in consequence of his pastoral travels; and his opportunities of ascertaining by observation that the clergy awaited only the pretence of an anointment at Rheims to declare for the right of Charles VII.; will account for those early oracles of Joan of Arc, which indicated Rheims to the Dauphin as the most essential goal to which he should run. By an attempt made in 1428 to tax ecclesiastical property, the Duke of Bedford had offended the church of France.

That Charles VII., whose circumstances were desperate, should receive with complacency, at the hands of an ecclesias-

* He disdained no superstitious acts; and he sold leaden medallions of saints which were to be worn about the person, as charms against the devil.

tical faction, which was drawing nearer to him, a prophetess, through whom they hoped strongly and powerfully to move the vulgar, is sufficiently natural. He would willingly send to her the stuffed boot which distinguished him from his courtiers, and then pretend to wonder at her knowing the wearer:—he would honestly admire her unusual proficiency in military exercises, and would be well aware that, in order to recruit a French army, such a serjeant would be an important acquisition.

The sort of courage, which is blind to consequences, more often falls to the lot of the tools of destiny, than that prospective ambition which proportions enterprize to means; and this was the courage which animated Joan of Arc. When she quitted Blois at the head of the new levies who were dispatched to the succour of Orleans, waving the holy standard which had been confided to her hands by the assembled priesthood of the town, (who affected to obey her inspired commands in consecrating the banner,) her beauty, her eloquence, and her apparently severe graces, inspired enthusiasm: but she figured in a procession of glory, not of danger. So again on her triumphal entry into Orleans with these succours. It was not rash in the besieged, after this reinforcement, to attack the besiegers: on the contrary, the Duke of Burgundy had withdrawn his assistance from the English; and this alone would have frustrated their purpose: but, as Joan of Arc carried the holy banner, though she did not even wield a sword in these attacks, the whole merit of the victory was given to her. The news of her exploits arrived at Paris, embellished by the narrative arts of the clergy into legendary miracles; and the Duke of Bedford himself wrote to London that a blow had been struck by the hand of God, detrimental to English affairs. It ill suited him to reveal that his own arrogance had disobliged the Duke of Burgundy, whose defection was the secret cause of the whole revolution.

At the time of making the treaty of Troyes, the Duke of Burgundy was married to Michelle, an elder sister of Katherine the wife of the English King Henry V. By abolishing in this treaty the Salic law, the Duke of Burgundy hoped to prepare for his own family a claim to the throne of France, more legitimate than that of the English dynasty; and he let the English root out the King, intending next to root out the English. The loss of his first wife, however, without children, had extinguished the plan of aggrandizement which attached him to the interests of Henry V.; and he was now disposed to forget the assassination which had provoked his former disloyalty.

It so happened that the whole country between Loches; where the Dauphin was resident at the time of succouring Orleans, and Rheims, where the coronation was projected, was in the hands of creatures and dependants of the Duke of Burgundy. With his connivance, the entire procession was easy: but against his cordial opposition it could not have been effected. *Frère Richard* was always at hand, and ready to whisper to Joan of Arc how much the Duke of Burgundy could allow to happen:—where it was needful to attack, and where it would suffice to summon;—and thus a negotiated progress was disguised in the garb of a conquest, and of a conquest effected by the heroism of the Pucelle. The Duke of Burgundy, not having made his terms with Charles VII., and perhaps not being convinced that it was practicable to expel the English, did not choose as yet avowedly to break with them. The treachery of his adherents gave up Gergeau, and betrayed Lord Suffolk: but it suited best to represent the perfidy as involuntary defeat. The civility thus shewn to the Dauphin at Gergeau was returned at Auxerre; and the town was gently amerced by the royalists, instead of being besieged, avowedly out of consideration for the Duke of Burgundy. At Troyes, a secret understanding with the Bishop Lesguisé was effected by Richard in person; and it was communicated through the Maid in a marvellous and oracular form.

The coronation having at length been accomplished, Joan was properly advised to declare that her mission was ended; she had been the mouth-piece of the church in speaking to the monarch; and, like other instruments of the church, she had been lifted by the eloquence of the clergy from mortal to angelic rank. The dæmon of this world, however, had some possession of her mind. She could not relinquish the incense of vain glory; and in the shout of crowds, in the devotion of armies, in the deference of courtiers, in the panegyric of priests, she took a natural delight. It was represented to her that her presence would encourage the armies, and emancipate France; and that real victories would take place, like the simulated triumphs, wherever she held the banner of her country. She yielded, therefore, to the solicitations of military patriots, and encountered danger. The King recompensed her with nobility, and painted lilies on her shield: but she had no longer the enchanted armour of the church. Moreover, her pompous exaltation into a prophetess was met, by the English party, with a counter-accusation that she was a witch. The popular fear of her was thus enfeebled: soldiers were soon collected who did not dread to oppose the bands which she conducted; and at the second time of her advancing to the charge in honest warfare,

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she was taken prisoner at Compiègne. So much ecclesiastical epopea had prevailed in the very panic which she was said to inspire, that the historical traces of such terror among the soldiery are not easily any where to be remarked.

After the capture of Joan of Arc, it became natural to agitate the question to what class of captives she belonged, and to what conduct the captors were obliged. The English regency, suspicious of the Duke of Burgundy in whose jurisdiction she had been taken, paid her ransom to the captors, and then caused the University of Paris, and the Vicar-general of the Inquisition, to apply to the Duke of Burgundy for leave to judge the culprit ecclesiastically. If the Duke offered to protect her, it was acknowledging that she had been a go-between to his dependants and the royalists; if he gave her up to the Inquisition, it was acquainting all the clergy in his jurisdiction that they were still at the mercy of the University and Chapter of Paris. He had, however, the baseness to relinquish the protection of his instrument; and the English regency thought that they had gone too far not to act on a condemnation which they had extorted. No person can read the story of the execution without shudders of horror; and it was received, as it ought, with an indignation which broke loose in every market-place. This deed of inhumanity, not the sword of Joan of Arc, expelled the English from France. Yet such executions were detestably frequent in those days. In the preceding year, two women had been arrested at Paris for laying claim to revelations; and the one of them, who said that God had appeared to her in a white robe with a scarlet hood, was burnt. (See Villaret, Vol. xv. p. 36.)

In the particulars of the trial given by L'Averdy, it appears (p. 43.) that Joan of Arc had interviews with Friar Richard, in which he proposed to her to adopt the revelations of another woman: but this was an attempt at schooling, which her independence withstood. It appears, moreover, (p. 47. and p. 60.) that she had frequent internal apparitions, seeing figures of Saint Katherine and Saint Michael, resembling their pictured appearance on altar-pieces; and when, at the age of seventeen, she quitted her father's house, without leave, and associated with a recruiting party, spending her days and nights among them, these saints, she said, (p. 60.) approved such conduct. It seems that her internal apparitions were sometimes visual reminiscences, and sometimes auditory reminiscences: she stated in prison (p. 131.) that she had repeatedly heard voices saying that she should be delivered: but she admitted that these voices had deceived her. Voluntary internal apparitions are seldom vivid enough to be mistaken for reality; and involun-

luntary

Insatiable internal apparitions seldom take place, without some lesion of the organs of sense or idealization, some paralysis of the representative machinery of the brain. Hence this latter class of apparitions have a specific date, before which they did not occur; and therefore they are readily supposed by those who see them to be out of the course of nature, or supernatural.

Cauchon, the Bishop of Beauvais, who chiefly managed the oppressive condemnation of Joan of Arc, had been appointed to the diocese in 1420 by the party of the Duke of Burgundy. He was their creature; and he evidently thought that there was no alternative between sacrificing her character, as a witch, or that of his patron, as a traitor.

We recollect that a writer in the *Monthly Magazine* (Vol. vi. p. 3.) starts the singular doubt, whether the Bishop of Beauvais did not privately rescue the innocent sufferer from death, by causing an unusual apparatus (*un très haut échaffaud de plâtre*, says an original witness,) to be built up in the center of the funeral pile; through which chimney it seems possible, during the thickest of the combustion, to have withdrawn her undetected: but the detailed testimony to her piety and feeling, during the long agonies of a protracted torment, which are quoted by L'Averdy (p. 467.) from Massieu, and other original authorities, oblige us to reject an hypothesis so soothing to humanity. It is true that a female appeared in 1436, who called herself Joan of Arc, who was recognized as such by the two brothers of the original Joan of Arc, who was ennobled as such by the King, and who was married as such by a gentleman named *Des Armoises*. The somewhat jocose address of the King, *Pucelle, m'amie, soyez la très bien revenue, au nom de Dieu*, does not, however, point to the return of the original Joan of Arc, but to the appearance of a representative whom patriotic gratitude was to endow. The unusual efforts, and repeated examinations, which were made by public authority to substantiate the virginity of the Pucelle, shew that the breath of scandal had not always respected it. If, after having run off with a recruiting party before she was seventeen, — *sine scitu et contra voluntatem parentum suorum, dum esset ætatis septemdecim annorum vel quocirca, domum paternam egressa fuit, ac multitudini hominum arma sequentium sociata, diu noctuque cum eis conversando, nunquam aut raro aliam mulierem secum habente*, — she had returned home in a condition to add a new Joan of Arc to the family, it would not have been surprizing; and this daughter would be carefully concealed while the reputation of chastity was important to the mother, and would just then be acknowledged by the relations and endowed by the King when the age of nubility approached.

Rapin has attached to the reign of Henry VI. a long dissertation concerning Joan of Arc : but, partly from want of attention to the vacillating state of the Duke of Burgundy's allegiance, and partly from want of the information brought out by L'Averdy, he misses the real spring of the machinery, and looks for it in Baudricour and Dunois, instead of *Frère Richard* and the Armagnac party.

The author of this volume has much yet to do, if it is to be rendered a satisfactory and enduring piece of history. Lenglet has adopted a tone ridiculously panegyric : he aims at a genteel account of his Joan, endeavours to ennoble any vulgarity which might be attributed to her behaviour, and describes with theatrical effect the critical moments of her singular existence. His very facts have a colouring and a varnish, a deceptious glitter, not adapted to the age and the persons described. The whole tincture of the narrative should be changed ; and the omitted information should be collected, and inserted in the proper places. We have here the heroine of an epopea, and not the woman of history. To the minor praise, however, of translating with fidelity, of abridging with sufficient omission, of composing with general (though not always accurate) elegance, and of glowing with adequate sensibility, the present author is visibly intitled.

The character of Joan of Arc will long continue to excite attention : great poets have dwelt on her achievements : Shakespeare and Schiller have placed her in their dramas ; Voltaire and Southey in their epic poems. Their delineations are in course calculated rather for effect than for fidelity of representation ; and it may safely be affirmed that neither the poets nor the historians have as yet sketched a striking likeness : so that a niche still remains in the wall of the temple of European biography, which awaits a statue from the hand of a philosophic artist.

ART. III. *Mr. Wakefield's Account of Ireland.*

[Article concluded from p. 18.]

HAVING given, in our last Number, a sketch of the contents of Mr. Wakefield's book as far as they regarded the amount of the revenue, the condition of the peasantry, and the progress of agriculture, we proceed to topics of a very different nature. The accommodations for the promotion of commerce, the state of education, and the estimate of national character, are the subjects which now call for our consideration ; and they are of so much interest in themselves, and so fully treated by

Mr. W., that we are induced to assign to them rather a larger space than our limits can with propriety afford.

Harbours and Canals. — Mr. Wakefield, though seldom disposed to speak strongly of the advantages of Ireland, is scarcely behind her warmest admirers in extolling the excellence of her bays and harbours. On the east coast, indeed, from Belfast to Waterford, the sea-ports are much incumbered with dangerous shifting sands; and at Dublin, in particular, it has hitherto been found impracticable to remedy this inconvenience: but from Waterford westward, Ireland abounds with harbours which, as we have already explained in our report of Mr. Newenham's work, (Vol. lxvi. p. 357.) may be put in competition with any in the world. In another point, however, that of canals, Mr. Wakefield differs materially from Mr. Newenham, as well as from that numerous body in Ireland who allege that public money cannot be better expended than in works of that description. He grounds his opinion on a reason in which we fully acquiesce, and which we have already recorded in our pages; namely, that no undertaking deserves the name of an improvement unless its returns are such as to defray its expence. Of the various canals in Ireland, the two principal are the "Grand Canal" and "Royal Canal," both running across the country from Dublin to the Shannon, and both more employed in the conveyance of passengers than of merchandise. The former was the earlier undertaking, and was begun on a scale of greater width than was necessary. Both canals have also been cut in wrong directions; the Grand Canal being made to join the Shannon too soon, while the Royal Canal was diverted from its course by that private influence which is so often the bane of public works in Ireland. The Grand Canal is said to be a losing concern; and no wonder, since little in the shape of a bulky commodity is conveyed on it besides turf for the consumption of Dublin: but, bad as this is, the Royal Canal is in a much worse condition, being unfinished, and in the receipt of an income of only 15,000*l.* a-year, with a debt of more than a million. Farther grants of public money would, in Mr. Wakefield's opinion, be wholly inexpedient; the districts to which it is carried having no mines, nor manufactories, nor timber. The ardour of the Irish for canals makes them forget that these undertakings should follow, instead of preceding, the progress of industry; and they forget also that, their principal towns being almost all sea-ports, canal-navigation was less wanted in their country than in the wider extent of inland territory in England. To please the nation, however, a Board of Commissioners was established at the time of the Union, and intrusted with the disposal of half a million of public

money for the support of such canal-undertakings as might appear conducive to general utility. Of this sum, about 400,000*l.* have been appropriated; yet, of all the canals in Ireland, it is thought that only one, namely, a short cut from Newry to the sea, serving as a ship-canal, actually pays its expences.

Roads.—The roads in Ireland are much celebrated for the excellence of their condition. There are no bye-roads, and all the highways are of two widths; a mail-coach-way being broader than the others. The whole expence being defrayed by an assessment on land, and the road-materials being very durable, few turnpikes are requisite; and it is only in the neighbourhood of Dublin, where the frequent passage of vehicles with goods tends to injure the roads, that tolls are collected to defray the expences of repairs. Mr. Wakefield has inserted (Vol. i. p. 660.) a table of the annual county-assessments for this purpose. The sums levied are very considerable, being, for counties of ordinary extent, such as Antrim, Clare, and Down, fully 20,000*l.* each; for Tipperary and Cork, above 30,000*l.* each.

Independently of the roads for common purposes, Government, immediately after the rebellion in 1798, employed the soldiers in constructing military roads through the mountains of Wicklow and Waterford, and in the former they extend from barrack to barrack. Very little traffic is carried on by these roads; but they are as smooth as gravel-walks, and the whole line being executed under the direction of an able engineer, they have been made to wind round the sides of the mountains, so as to obviate any sudden rise. A traveller is some considerable time in ascending them; yet the elevation is so gentle as to be hardly perceptible, and to occasion no inconvenience. By these roads a communication has been opened in districts, before impervious; and they may be considered as useful works, which do infinite credit to the projector.

‘In the majority of the counties, the roads are not only excellent, but numerous; this great advantage has arisen chiefly from the country gentlemen having a just opinion of their usefulness, and on account of the employment of the people in their construction: but like all other benefits, it has its attendant evils; as frequent instances of *road-jobbing* occur, a term given to the making of unnecessary roads for the purpose of serving a tenant or dependant.’

From roads, Mr. W. passes, by an easy transition, to Posts and Inns. Yet, connected as these subjects are, he deems it proper, with that unlucky predilection for amplification which forms a great drawback on the usefulness of his work, to make an historical reference to the origin of regular posts. In the course of this investigation, he carries his reader back even so far as the age of Cyrus the Great. It was in the reign of Charles I. that a regular post was first established between
England,

England, Scotland, and Ireland; and it deserves to be recorded that, in the time of the Commonwealth, the post-office business of the three kingdoms was farmed for the moderate sum of 10,000*l.* a year. At present, the packets sail daily from three stations, Milford-haven, Port-Patrick, and Holyhead; with the exception of the days on which, by the intervention of Sunday, no mail is received from London. The ordinary passage from Holyhead to Dublin is twelve hours: but, when the new harbour constructing at Howth, on the outside of Dublin bay, is completed, the average will not exceed eight hours. With regard to stage-coaches, an Englishman may be surprized to learn that Ireland scarcely possesses one which does not emanate from Dublin. At the same time, it should be observed that the canal-boats take many passengers; and that the inland-communication, limited as it still is, has been much improved within these twenty years. Yet it is abundantly clear that those who travel for pleasure must not go far into the interior of our sister-island.

‘Post-horses and chaises, such as they are, may be obtained in most parts of Ireland. The latter are called, by way of ridicule, *rattle-traps*, and are the most wretched vehicles that can be conceived: Miss Edgeworth’s celebrated picture of Irish posting in her late work, entitled “*Ennui*,” is an exact description of the carriages that are to be met with in Connaught and many other places.

‘With regard to inns, Ireland seems to be far behind many other parts of the empire. Buildings occupied for this purpose are of a very inferior kind, and the inn-keepers have very little civility or attention. In an Irish inn, the eye, as in France and in Spain, is every where disgusted with filthy objects. The olfactory nerves also are often affected by the noxious effluvia arising from the same cause; and if a waiter attend, which is not always the case, he is a being who in general would form an excellent subject for some of our eminent caricaturists. His hair, most commonly, hangs down in a kind of pig-tail, but as it would be troublesome to untie it, he never uses a comb, and of course, none of the covering which nature has there given is ever lost by cleaning. His hands, perhaps, have not been washed for a month; and a clean shirt or clean shoes are considered as things altogether unnecessary.’—‘Yet the charges in these houses are enormous; equal to those made in the first taverns in London; and the perquisites which the waiters, chambermaids, hostlers, boots, &c. expect, greater than those ever given in England. I know of no comfort to be found in an Irish inn but one, that is clean sheets; and to the honour of the country, I found these in every place which I visited.’—‘But the inconvenience arising from bad inns, uncleanly waiters, and dirty accommodation, is trifling, when compared with the danger to which travellers are exposed through the defective state of the police. In the year 1808, a new stage-coach was advertised as about to start from Dublin to Cork, and as an inducement to passengers to take places, it was emphatically stated, that the vehicle was lined with

copper, and therefore completely bullet-proof. — The mail-coaches carry two guards, properly armed and accoutred.' —

'I have already had occasion to allude to many abuses in this country, and I am sorry that I must still add to the catalogue. No department, indeed, in Ireland, has been worse managed than that of the post-office. The office of postmaster-general has commonly been bestowed on noblemen who never attended to it, and most of the inferior places have been filled by deputies, or rather sub-deputies, so that those whose duty it is to see the business properly executed, are ignorant of the manner in which its duties are performed.' — 'Those who are desirous of seeing a true picture of official abuse, need only take a view of the post-office establishment of Ireland. Public officers receiving salaries, and employing at very inferior wages, substitutes or clerks, who from the penury of their situation are obliged to seek a livelihood by adventitious means, and become venders of news-papers and other periodical publications.'

As to post-office revenue, the total collection in Ireland is nearly 200,000l.; of which somewhat more than half is consumed in charges of management. — The carriage of heavy goods along the roads takes place, not in waggons, as in this country, but in one-horse cars; and of late years in small carts, called Scotch drays, with high wheels and iron arms, in which twenty-two hundred weight can be drawn by one horse.

Distilleries. — We recently took occasion* to draw the attention of our readers to the melancholy effects attendant on the late abatement of the duty on spirits in Ireland; and we have now the satisfaction of receiving Mr. Wakefield's support to our opinion. Ministers acted on the persuasion that the only plan for counteracting illicit distillation was to lower the duty to the legal distiller: but the increased sickness and misery consequent on the cheapening of spirits have too fully proved the impolicy of the experiment. It took place at the urgency of the Irish landholders, who were dissatisfied with the substitution of sugar for corn, and were impatient, at all events, to secure a sale for the latter. This, however, it is clear, is not the way to overcome illicit distillation: the evil is too deeply rooted, and will yield to nothing but the progressive advance of improvement in the districts in which it is most practised; and which are more particularly the north-western counties.

'Whisky from illicit stills is sold as openly as if it had been gauged by the excise-officer; it has a peculiar smoaky taste, different from that which has been regularly and carefully distilled, and which the people imagine to have acquired its white colour from vitriol: were one to find fault with the whisky in the northern counties, the immediate reply would be, "It's as good 'pocheen' as any in Ulster, for it never paid a happ'eth of duty."'

Some idea of the magnitude of this evil may be formed from the following table, which contains the number of unlicensed stills that appear to have been seized in the course of five years, from 1802 to June 1806.

	Stills.	Heads.	Worms.
1802. . . .	4,131 . .	3,190 . .	2,809
1803. . . .	2,573 . .	2,018 . .	1,744
1804. . . .	2,360 . .	2,021 . .	1,732
1805. . . .	2,974 . .	2,656 . .	2,373
Six months, to June 1806. . . .	1,401 . .	1,213 . .	1,074
Total	<u>13,439</u>	<u>11,098</u>	<u>9,732</u>

When to the evidence afforded by this remarkable list, we add the frauds practised in former years by the regular distillers, it becomes probable that more than half of the spirits consumed in Ireland escapes duty. Recent examinations on this subject, by a Board of Commissioners, afford a striking example of the lamentable irregularity which is prevalent in Ireland. That excise-officers should sometimes be in the pay of illicit distillers does not surprize us: but collusion with the licensed distiller cannot fail to suggest very painful reflections. The Commissioners in question have reported that

‘ In many instances the visits of the gaugers are accommodated to the convenience of the distiller, who is thus enabled to regulate his work in such a manner as to have his premises apparently correct on these occasions; and if the time of the officer’s coming be inconvenient, he goes away, and returns at an appointed hour. It is stated, also, that frequently the entries made in their books are altogether fictitious, particularly those of their evening visits, and written with a preparation of ink easy to be discharged, in order to substitute false entries; and it appears from the deposition of several eminent distillers, that government, by collusions of this kind, sustain a loss, the extent of which is immense. One distiller candidly acknowledged, that he frequently made 5,300 gallons of spirits in a week, at a time when he was charged with 2,075 only; another, that he annually made 9,000 or 10,000 gallons of spirits weekly, when his charge was but 4,970 gallons, and that had it not been for some defect in the apparatus, he could have made a still greater quantity; a third, that he made, on an average, 6,500 gallons, and sometimes 7,000 weekly, when charged with no more than 3,500; and a fourth stated it as his belief, that the spirits privately made by distillers in general were, at the least, equal in quantity to the spirits with which they were chargeable.’

Education. — Mr. W. is an ardent advocate for the diffusion of the blessings of education throughout Ireland. He is likewise a zealous supporter of the system of Lancaster; in whose behalf his mother, Mrs. Wakefield, well known by her publications for the instruction of youth, early took an active part.

Mr. Dewar,

Mr. Dewar, whose work on Ireland we lately noticed, (*Review* for April last,) has treated the topic of Irish education at considerable length: but we are not the less desirous of reporting Mr. W.'s observations on this highly important question. The neglect of the education of the Irish has hitherto been so great, that the subject cannot be too frequently brought forwards; and the two writers, moreover, prosecuted their investigations on different plans. Mr. Dewar availed himself of a knowledge of the Gaelic language to converse frankly and confidentially with the humble cottager; while Mr. W. directed his attention to detect the mismanagement that prevails in the public schools. In these, as in every other department, he had the mortification of meeting with proofs of that system of jobs which in Ireland has perverted so many well meant institutions. The endowed schools of that country are of two kinds:

1. Six public schools founded by royal authority, above a century and a half ago, and liberally endowed as to funds.
2. Chartered schools, founded in 1733 by Geo. II., and supported partly by royal grants and partly by private subscriptions.

To begin with the former, The object of their establishment was to afford instruction to the children of the poor; and it is not a little amusing to find the names of distinguished members of the families of Foster and Ponsonby in the list of so humble a class as that of school-masters. The fact was that gentlemen of these families discovered, as others had done before them, that these appointments might be rendered "very pretty sinecures." They proceeded accordingly on the convenient plan of pocketing the fixed salary, without aiming at any addition from the discharge of the duty. On a late investigation, only one master out of the six was found to have actually fulfilled the obligations of his office. The example of the other incumbents became contagious; and two additional schools, liberally endowed by private individuals, were managed in the same commendable style: both being absorbed by the Reverend Joseph Preston, brother of Lord Tara, who continued for a long time in the receipt of more than 2,000*l.* a-year, 'without the slightest idea,' we are told, 'of discharging the duty either in person or by deputy.'

The 'chartered schools,' though more numerous than those which we have just mentioned, were restricted on their foundation to a specific object, viz. that of "instructing the children of the Popish and other poor natives in the English tongue." The funds, whether derived from government or from private liberality, were put under the direction of a body of Protestants, bearing the title of the "Incorporated Society." Successive additions

additions of parliamentary grants, and individual contributions, have carried the yearly interest of this fund to the sum of 30,000l. ; yet, ample as this is, little has been done towards accomplishing the object of the institution. The zeal of the society, in making converts to the Protestant religion, has proved unfavourable to the humbler object of diffusing a knowledge of our language: since the Directors not only declined to admit any other than Popish children, but they went the length of putting into their hands a catechism derogatory to the creed of their parents. Such a course of proceeding could not fail to be highly repulsive to the Catholic body; many of whom exclaimed, "that the Protestants robbed the poor of their children in order to bring them up in a new religion." The obnoxious catechism has lately been discontinued: but it would be vain to anticipate any considerable degree of instruction among the Catholics from seminaries of which they have been so long suspicious. Mr. Wakefield suggests a remedy for this evil, by what appears to us a very plain and equitable arrangement of the funds:

'My wish,' he says, 'would be to divide the great funds appropriated for national education. Let that portion, which by the terms of the bequest, or settlement, is directed to be applied to the education of Protestants, be invested in the hands of a board, consisting of persons of that religious persuasion, to be expended in educating the children of Protestants only. The attempt to instruct children, born of Popish parents, has entirely failed; the remainder of the funds, which, in all probability, would amount to three quarters of the whole (according to the rules of proportion), the object being to promote education, and not to make converts, should be committed to the management of a committee of Roman Catholics, laity and clergy united; for the great aim should be kept in view, — to improve the condition of the Roman Catholic schoolmaster; who, starving on a miserable and precarious pittance, cannot be expected to have any great attachment to a country where he is so ill rewarded, or to entertain respect for a government by which he is so neglected. This class of men might be rendered highly useful to the state; once gain their confidence by kind treatment, and that feeling of gratitude, which ever actuates the human mind where the heart is not debased, will convert them into loyal and useful subjects.' —

'I would not debase the people, nor wound their natural pride, by offering them education free of expense. Neither would I tear the child from the arms of the parent, and from his native cabin, to place him in a school which has all the appearance of a gaol, rather than that of a seminary of learning. I would cherish that most prominent, and most excellent trait in the Irish character — the strong affection which is exhibited between the parent and the child. Were masters and mistresses, on the Lancasterian plan, established in every parish; and no catechisms introduced which are calculated to inspire children with hatred towards those of a different religious opinion, the pre-
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sent funds would be sufficient. — I may, perhaps, be told, that the Roman Catholics would not concur in a plan of this kind. I have had more conversations on this subject with the leading men among the Roman Catholics than almost any other individual in the kingdom; and I have no hesitation in asserting, that if offered to them in a proper manner, they would hail with joy the auspicious hour, and co-operate in any scheme of liberal education that might be proposed.

The following circumstance relative to Mr. Lancaster is remarkable :

‘ According to report, Mr. Pole, the Irish minister, wishing to establish a Lancasterian school at the House of Industry in Dublin, wrote to Mr. Lancaster, to send over a person acquainted with his method to give the necessary instructions for its formation. Lancaster’s enthusiasm induced him to answer the letter in person, as he conceived the object to be of so much importance as to require every attention that he possibly could bestow upon it. His expectations, however, were disappointed; for, on arriving at Dublin, Mr. Pole seemed surprised, and informed him that he had written only for one of his assistants. Lancaster, however, requested the minister’s patronage to lectures which he intended to give on the subject of his plan; but, fortunately for Ireland, the minister declined giving any countenance to the design. This refusal, in all probability, has forwarded the improvement of the people of Ireland, in regard to education, at least fifty years. Had Lancaster been patronised by the Castle government, he would have been considered by the bulk of the inhabitants as the mere tool of a faction; and his system, which in my opinion, will do more good to Ireland than any other that could be adopted, would not have been favourably received. Lancaster has been hailed by the Catholics as a benefactor; and they have determined to carry his system into effect.’

Mr. W. proceeds (Vol. ii. p. 420. *et seq.*) to comment with great animation on the abuses of other public institutions in Ireland, particularly that of the Dublin Foundling Hospital. It seems that the trustees of that establishment were too much occupied with other matters to give their attendance, ‘ except when offices of emolument were to be disposed of;’ and the consequences of the cruel neglect prevalent in this institution were a miserable mortality among the children, and scenes of filth and wretchedness which, we hope, are now banished from it for ever.—We pass from this affecting subject to the Catholic college of Maynooth. The sum allowed by Government for that establishment has lately, we believe, been increased to 13,000*l.* a-year. The course of study consists in Latin, Greek, Belles-Lettres, Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, Moral Philosophy, and Divinity :

‘ The establishment of Maynooth accommodates 200 students with lodgings; affords them commons and instruction; supplies them

them in the public halls with coals and candles during studying hours. Each student pays *gl. 2s.* entrance money ; provides himself with clothes, books, bedding, and chamber furniture ; pays for washing, mending, and candle light for his room. This expense may be moderately estimated at *20l.* per annum.

Each student before admission must deliver to the president authentic certificates of his age, parentage, baptism, and of having taken the oath of allegiance, together with the recommendation of his prelates. He is then examined in the classics, and admitted, if approved by the major part of the examiners.

Local Manners.—After having passed over a long list of statistical details, we arrive at the more entertaining topic of national manners. In these respects, Ireland presents stronger points of contrast than almost any other country of similar extent ; for which, two great causes may be assigned, viz. the difference of religion, and the successive arrival and settlement of numbers of foreign colonists. In the province of Ulster, this difference of national character is, from situation, particularly apparent ; the Protestant manufacturers living at no great distance from the Catholic peasants. The latter reside in the mountainous districts to which their forefathers retired after their unsuccessful attempts at insurrection ; retaining the ancient Irish language, living as a separate people, and holding very little intercourse with their neighbours.

Ulster.—The traveller who pursues the high roads throughout the province of Ulster, will find the people, in general, more industrious, better clothed, and living in a more comfortable manner, than the same class in many other parts of Ireland. — But in the mountains he will meet with a barbarous language, intelligible only to those by whom it is spoken, and a race whose wretched condition almost exceeds description. —

No country affords a more striking proof of the superiority which education and wealth has over numbers. Were an enumeration made, the Roman Catholic population would, I believe, preponderate ; yet these people are depressed beyond all conception, and what may appear astonishing, they bear their degradation without murmuring or complaint. Familiarized with misery, they have acquired an habitual apathy, and have become indifferent to those objects in which the inhabitants of a free country are always interested : they seem neither to know nor to feel the extent of their misery. —

There is a district, comprehending Donegal, the interior of the county of Derry, and the western side of Tyrone, which is emphatically called by the people "The Black North," an expression not meant, as I conceive, to mark its greater exposure to the westerly winds, but rather its dreary aspect. — There are immense tracts in this part of the country which their owners never deigned to gladden by their presence. — Although the linen manufacture is spread over this part of the country, its beneficial effects are not to be observed in the appearance

appearance or habits of the people. It is in the neighbourhood of Belfast, where commerce, and the cotton and linen manufacture, have stimulated industry, that the improved state of the inhabitants is conspicuous.' —

'The custom of going bare-footed prevails throughout Ulster; but, in many instances, arises rather from habit than poverty.' —

'The women in the weaving districts are much accustomed to visiting each other, and these visits are called *keating*. A young female with her spinning-wheel on her head travels a considerable distance, to the house of an acquaintance, where others are assembled, who spin, sing, and converse during the whole evening; after which they cheerfully return to their own homes, without participating in any refreshment excepting potatoes and milk.' — 'The distinction between those engaged in manufactures and the other classes, is in nothing so conspicuous as in their dress. Among the women, cotton and muslin are in common use: these habiliments give a gay appearance to a country, and are a sure indication of industry. — The superiority of the weaver is produced by the united labour of every member of the family, all of whom contribute to the general support.' — Oatmeal-cakes is the bread commonly used in the north. Wheaten bread is never seen, except in the houses of the more opulent inhabitants, and even in these it is of modern introduction. *Stir-about*, in Scotland called pottage, which is oatmeal boiled with water, and eaten with milk, is a common dish in the north, and many of the children have no other food.' —

'Every cabin is provided with a dog, and some have two or three, which, in general, are ill-tempered animals, constantly running out and barking with fury at the passengers, and particularly those on horseback, to their great annoyance. These animals are a great nuisance in Ireland. I have been followed for miles by half a dozen of these curs, which are as ferocious as wolves, yelping at my horse's heels; and I have known many dreadful accidents from their savage attacks.' —

'In Fermanagh a class of yeomanry is met with who characterize themselves by the expression, "just as good Protestants as any in all Ireland;" which does not imply that they are more religious than others, but that they are not exceeded by any in rooted aversion and inveterate enmity to their Roman Catholic neighbours. In this county, I have seen estates advertised to be sold with this recommendation, "that they were more valuable, because tenanted by Protestants."'

'There are opulent farmers, who have beef on their tables, and drink port wine on a market-day, at Enniskillen, where a toast to the glorious memory of King William is filled to the brim, the glass lifted to the mouth with the right hand, and swallowed without a sip.' —

'Enniskillen is celebrated, and, not without reason, as a convenient place for obtaining recruits. A military turn has long prevailed among the inhabitants of this county, and there are few families who have not one or more sons in the army. Young men who intend to enlist, travel from very distant parts to Enniskillen, where there are always recruiting parties, belonging to some favourite regiment ready to receive them.' —

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' Throughout Ulster the remembrance of original titles to estates is nearly lost, but in other parts of Ireland it is still kept alive ; and, in some cases, supports a delusive hope, which, at this distance of time, and after so many changes, never can be realized. In Ulster I only recollect being informed of one instance of this kind ; it occurred on the coast of Donegal, where the property of the McSwine's, who, according to tradition, were tributary to the O'Donnell's of Donegal, was claimed by a blacksmith, who worked for Mr. Stewart of the Ards. It was however a disputed point, for many besides this humble son of Vulcan made pretension to the honour of the same descent.'

On entering the hilly county of Leitrim, and drawing towards Connaught, the traveller finds himself surrounded by native Irish. Dancing is here as much in vogue as in the Highlands of Scotland, and the Gaelic is the only language known among the poor. They have very little idea of the nature of government, or of the obligation of law ; at least as far as it regards pilfering. On discovering a trespass of this nature, they are abundantly ready, from a fellow-feeling, to compound ; and when asked why they do not inform against an offender who is detected in stealing their property, they reply that it would be hard to "hang a man for stealing a bit of mutton." To physicians, they have as great an aversion as our valorous allies, the Cossacks ; who, as we have lately seen, (Review for July, p. 230.) consider "drugs as much more formidable than the artillery of an enemy." In the county of Sligo, many of the first families are of Welsh extraction, having received their estates by grants from Cromwell :

' This country is fortunate in having one resident, Mr. Wynne, whose presence and example must have a beneficial influence on the people. — He possesses the confidence of the poor, who look up to him as their friend and benefactor. Being in the habit of conversing with people whom I met on the road, I was told by many, that when they sustained any injury, they always applied to Mr. Wynne for redress, and on inquiring the reason, was told, "because his justice was good." — 'That he may be better able to attend to the calls of humanity, he sets apart certain days for the administration of justice, and Lady Sarah makes the same arrangement for listening to the complaints of her poor female neighbours. On these occasions, the domain gates are thrown open to all. The litigants, many of whom come from the mountains, and cannot speak a word of English, make known their case, which is often some trifling quarrel, through the medium of an interpreter. In general, Mr. Wynne obliges them to present a written narrative, which they employ some schoolmaster to draw up. So numerous are the suitors sometimes, and so eager to be heard, that it is difficult to preserve order, and make them attend to their turn.' — 'I was much amused with the complaint of a woman, who through an interpreter claimed

claimed a fortune from her father : on the case being explained, it appeared that her father had promised her ten guineas, six of which he had paid ; and when Mr. Wynne, after some trouble, convinced him that he ought to keep his word, he cheerfully agreed to pay the remainder.'—

' Although quarrels are here very frequent, fighting single-handed is unknown. No one ever resolves to rely on his own personal courage or strength ; when a man sustains an injury, or conceives himself affronted, he calls in to his aid, not only his immediate relations and friends, but his neighbours and fellow-parishioners, and sometimes the inhabitants of a barony. Whole districts thus become interested in individual disputes ; the combatants marshal themselves under leaders distinguished for their prowess ; *shillelas* are their weapons, and when a general engagement takes place, many are wounded on both sides.'—

' *Connaught*. — The poorer orders have very vague notions of property, or the nature of the moral obligation. They shew little desire to increase their wealth by habits of industry, nor do they set much value on the laws, and the regular administration of justice which protects property when acquired ; all they look to is the benefits of the moment ; their own advantage, whatever it may be at the time ; and the same principle forms the grand spring of action in a greater or less degree throughout all ranks. It actuates the country squire who cringes before the Lord-lieutenant's secretary at the Castle, and the half-starved cotter, who sits two or three hours in the morning in the court-yard of some great proprietor, to catch his Honour before he mounts his horse ; and who wastes day after day seeking an opportunity to tell him that he is the cousin, removed in the tenth, or twelfth degree, to some of " his Honour's " old tenants, who has been dead, perhaps, thirty years. " And what if you are his kinsman ? " " I have a bit of a favour to beg of your Honour. " " And what do you want, man ? " — This short dialogue is followed by a complaint against some neighbour, or he expresses a desire of taking a piece of land. This is the common mode of address employed by the Irish when soliciting for any favour. They begin with many preliminary phrases, and keep the main object in reserve until they discover how the great man is affected towards them, or conceive that they have insinuated themselves into his good graces. When I was at Coolure, in the month of August, 1808, a man was brought before Admiral Pakenham, on a charge of stealing timber : on entering the room, his first address was, " I heard, plaze your Honour, that your Honour wanted some stores for the Lord-lieutenant. " — " And what if I do ? " replied the Admiral, " what is that to you ? " " I was only thinking, plaze your Honour, that I would have got them for your Honour. " The fellow imagined, that by this piece of dexterity the Admiral would suffer him to escape ; but he found himself mistaken, for he was committed to Mullingar jail.'—

' The class next in importance to the landed proprietors are the graziers, who rank, or affect to rank, with those who are properly called the gentry of the country. These men are ambitious to assume the dress and imitate the manners of their superiors. They expect
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also to be called on the grand jury. To give themselves the consequence derived from high birth, if their names have the least resemblance to the native Irish, they prefix an O. — They dine at as late an hour as any nobleman; have a dirty fellow with his hair tied, and without powder, waiting at table by way of butler out of livery, and maintain an affected and ridiculous state. Their houses, except one or two rooms that are fitted up for shew, are almost without furniture; their clothes are generally kept in an old trunk, and the kitchen, like Noah's ark, is a receptacle for animals of every kind, clean and unclean. It is enlivened by the grunting pig*, and it is frequented with little ceremony by the cackling fowls.' —

'In Galway a man of large property is termed a "Statesman," but one who possesses only a few acres is called a "Patchman." I have heard one of the latter gentlemen abused by a fellow at Ballinasloe, and reproached in the following words, which are considered as highly degrading: "You Gallican, you're only a patchman." The younger brother of a patchman is looked upon with great contempt.'

It affords a relief to turn from these scenes of poverty and idleness to the east coast of Ireland, and to observe the contrast exhibited by the comfort and industry of the inhabitants of the county of Wexford. The latter are, in a great measure, the descendants of the English who settled there in the days of Cromwell; and some of them trace their progenitors as far back as the first invasion of Ireland in the reign of Henry II. Though the majority, beyond all proportion, are Roman Catholics, the Irish language is almost unknown among them. The women much excel others of their sex in Ireland, in the important point of cleanliness both as to clothes and furniture. Here, stockings and shoes are universally worn, and the muslin gowns and caps of the females form a pleasing novelty to the eye of the stranger who has been travelling through the less cultivated districts of the west and south. The farms, likewise, are considerably larger than in other parts of Ireland; and provisions are in abundance. General Vallancey, speaking of them, says,

"The people of these baronies live well, are industrious, cleanly, and of good morals. The poorest farmer eats meat twice a week, and the table of the wealthy farmer is daily covered with beef, mutton, or fowl. Their beverage is home-brewed ale and beer. The houses of the poorest are well built, and neatly covered with thatch; all have out-offices for cattle. The people are decently clothed. They are strong and laborious, and the women do all manner of rustic work, ploughing excepted. They receive equal wages with the men.

* It is not uncommon for an Irishman in some parts of the country, when a stranger pays him a visit, to call out to his wife or children, "Turn the pigs out, and let the gentleman in."

In this delightful spot the greatest harmony subsists between the landlord and the farmer ; and it is common to meet the tenant at the landlord's table. Such is their aversion to idleness, that if a beggar appears in these baronies, he is immediately handed from house to house, till he is beyond their boundaries."

On crossing the river Barrow, and holding a westward course, the traveller becomes very soon immersed among native Irish. One of the greatest drawbacks on the appearance of Irish cottagers, as well as on their comfort, is the total want of a garden. In England, this appendage, however small, affords the labourer's family a crop of useful vegetables : but in Ireland no such thing is to be seen ; potatoes alone are cultivated.

County of Cork. — I was informed by Mrs. Townsend, an intelligent elderly lady who resides at Castle Townsend, that women are hired to attend funerals, and that their business is to rehearse a kind of oration on the character and ancestry of the deceased. A petition, presented by the widow of one of these poets to Mrs. Townsend, contained the following expressions : " May your Ladyship long reign — My cabin was built by my husband, by the force of his strains, as Amphion built Thebes by the power of his lyre." This lady said, that the poor in her neighbourhood sup at nine o'clock ; converse by the light and warmth of bog-wood until eleven or twelve ; rise at a late hour, and milk their cows at eleven in the forenoon.

" The farmers in the inland part of the country live upon potatoes, with the addition of butter-milk, as they cannot afford to use milk fresh from the cow. At Christmas, perhaps, they indulge in a little meat ; but the labouring cottagers have no other fare than dry potatoes, and consider it fortunate if they are enabled to purchase salt to render them more palatable. The account given of the poor of Cork, by Mrs. Townsend, is a picture of misery and distress. " Houses differ in size, according to the circumstances of the occupier, but they are all built, when left to the farmer's choice, on the exceptionable plan with an open chimney at one end and a small room separated by a partition at the other ; this is the bed-chamber of the family, and serves also for a store-room. The walls are too low to allow an upper floor for habitable purposes ; but a few sticks thrown across at the feet of the rafters form a receptacle for lumber. Glass windows are a luxury to which cottagers rarely aspire ; but as light is an indispensable requisite, they contrive, by making opposite doors, to have one always open for its admission. No regard is paid to the cleanliness of the mansion — indeed it is impossible for any care to keep houses in any thing like decent condition, as long as the slovenly custom prevails of emptying every vessel on the floor, and making dung-holes before the door." —

" The poor are much neglected by the richer classes ; and I have been informed of many, and have seen some glaring instances of the tyranny and oppression to which they are subjected : I shall mention one. In the month of June, 1809, at the races at Carlow, I saw a poor man's cheek laid open by a stroke of a whip. He was standing

In the midst of a crowd, near the winning post : the inhuman wretch who inflicted the wound, was a gentleman of some rank in the county, but his name, for many reasons, I shall not mention. The unhappy sufferer was standing in his way, and, without requesting him to move, he struck him with less ceremony than an English country squire would a dog. But what astonished me even more than the deed, and which shews the difference between English and Irish feeling, was, that not a murmur was heard, nor hand raised in disapprobation ; but the surrounding spectators dispersed, running different ways, like slaves terrified at the rod of their despot. I observed to a gentleman with whom I was in company, how different a feeling would have actuated the populace in England. "What!" replied my friend, "would a man there dare to strike his superior?" — Yes; "And on his own estate, and in the midst of his tenantry." Well, but twenty magistrates of the county of Carlow are present. Will they not interpose, and redress this man? "Oh! no, they will get into no quarrel with ———."

When he leaves the open country, and directs his attention to Dublin, a traveller discovers a remarkable contrast of affluence and penury. The gay and the wealthy flock to this brilliant capital from almost every part of Ireland. The Lord-lieutenant, his family, and his official dependents, mix freely in society; the Commander-in-chief, with his staff and other officers, follows the example; while the dignitaries of the church, the lawyers, and the members of the University, all figure in the same sphere.

'Scarcely a night passes in Dublin without balls, assemblies, and musical parties. The removal of the parliament has been favourable to society in this metropolis; for the attention of gentlemen is not now so exclusively directed to political discussions. The houses in the city are all occupied, and are increasing in every direction; so that the vacancy occasioned by absentees, since the Union, is supplied by a class of people, less valuable perhaps in some respects, yet, who fill up their place as to number. In all public places the company mix freely, without restraint or formality, and the consequence is, a general knowledge of each other; a circumstance which gives more animation to crowded circles in Dublin, than is to be met with either in London or Paris, where persons may frequently meet, and yet acquire very little acquaintance with each other. A social disposition and love of amusement seem to pervade all ranks, and the dance is often kept up with as much spirit in the back room of a shop-keeper, as in the splendid mansion of a peer.' — 'Gentlemen of the law, not being accommodated with chambers as with us, mix more in society. — Dublin is remarkable for the number of its lawyers; no city in the world gives employment to so many attorneys. — It is extraordinary that medical men in Ireland are not held in the same estimation, as gentlemen of the other liberal professions. Physicians are treated with particular contempt in this country, though there are many professors of medicine as much distinguished by their skill and learning, as by their humanity and attention to the comfort and health of the

poor.' — 'In the middle ranks, hot suppers, a profusion of dishes, and plates loaded with meat, are considered as genuine hospitality. The frugal repast of bread and cheese, with a draught of home-brewed, so common among the same class in England, is here quite unknown. The meat breakfast of the English country-squire, or the more luxurious one of the Scottish laird, on whose plentiful board are displayed mutton, ham, dried fish, marmalade, honey, and other dainties, is never seen in Ireland: yet the breakfast in that country has always an addition of plenty of eggs. The English custom of a luncheon is seldom in use; meal-times are much the same as in England, except among tradesmen, whose shops are not open so soon in the morning by two hours, as they are in London: consequently, the breakfast is later.'

Were we, however, to turn from these scenes of festivity to the dwellings of the lower orders, we should witness a very different picture. The Rev. James Whitelaw, in his valuable account of the population of Dublin, observes:

"In the ancient parts of this city, with few exceptions, the streets are generally narrow, the houses crowded together, and the rears or back yards of very small extent. These dwellings are occupied by working manufacturers, by petty shopkeepers, the labouring poor, and beggars, crowded together. A single apartment in one of these truly wretched habitations, rates from one to two shillings per week; and to lighten this rent, two, three, and even four families, become joint tenants. I have frequently found from thirty to fifty individuals in a house. An intelligent clergyman of the church of Rome, assured me that No. 6. Braithwaite-street, some years since, contained 108 souls. From a careful survey twice taken of Plunket-street, it appeared that 32 contiguous houses contained 917 souls, which gives an average of 28 and a fraction to a house: and the entire liberty averages from about 12 to 16 souls to each house. This is certainly a dense population. The best informed inhabitants, however, assert that it was much greater a few years since, and to this opinion I willingly accede."

National Character. — From these details of local manners, Mr. W. passes to a more comprehensive subject, a general survey of the Irish character. Here, as in the rest of the book, he holds a tone of strict impartiality, giving the Irish credit for many good qualities, but courting no favour by softening the opposite side of the picture. 'They are,' he says, as 'extravagant as the French in an appetite for praise, and in a high idea of themselves and their country.' One of his chief objections to them regards their habitual want of moderation, and their incessant tendency to run into extremes. 'Their enjoyment of the present moment is mingled with no anxiety for the future; a want of thought which makes them often impatient to grasp at objects which, when attained, afford not the expected gratification.' Unluckily, their hospitality is not always accompanied by the exercise of less ostentatious virtues.

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That they are generous, I have admitted; but this quality extends chiefly to strangers. If we examine them in one of the most important relations to society, we shall find, that as landlords they exact more of their tenants than the same class of men in any other country. The conduct of gentlemen towards their tradesmen is also very reprehensible. Punctuality, I shall be told, is not generosity. But those who credit the assertion of Dr. Crump, that "there is no country in the world where tradesmen make so many bad debts," must allow, that justice is another virtue no less necessary, although by some not held in equal estimation.' — 'The higher ranks have an overbearing pride, which prevents them from educating their children in industrious habits, or suffering them to engage in commerce. Tradesmen they consider as a distinct class in society; and every business is contemned, that of wine-merchant excepted, in which some branches of the first families in the kingdom are engaged in Dublin.' —

'It will be found, on examination, that Ireland has a greater number of drones in the hive, in proportion to its population, than any other country in Europe. The northern parishes are more than sufficiently served by a triple provision of clergy; the minister of the church of Rome and his coadjutor; the Presbyterian minister and his assistant, and the different classes of Methodists. — Every other part of Ireland has a double set of clergy, either resident or absent, who waste the resources of the country for their support. When the multitude of persons set apart for religious instruction is considered, and the number of those who are educating for the same purpose, the gross amount will be found greater than is at first evident. To this list may yet be added an immense swarm of lawyers, and their dependants of every description; judges, for the same number of people in double proportion to those in England, and whose attendants are more numerous; unnecessary domestics, and the useless and lazy loiterers attached to every establishment. In consequence of the manner in which the revenue is collected, there is an host of officers, who must be placed in the same class. The country towns in Ireland are filled with idle persons, the most conspicuous of whom are middlemen, who find that, by re-letting the lands they have previously taken, they can raise an income without the exertions necessary for agricultural pursuits. I must not omit to state, that professed beggars are very numerous.' —

'Much time is lost from the late hour at which the people rise, the days they devote to pleasure, and those given up to religious ceremonies; I calculate that one-third at least of the time of the labouring classes in Ireland, is wasted in holy-days, funerals, weddings, christenings, fairs, patterns, races, and other recreations.' — 'All ranks are most anxious to become acquainted with every circumstance respecting a stranger. When one is among them, they have penetration enough to discover him, and ask him innumerable questions. In my way to Bantry, in October, 1808, I met a gentleman on horseback, attended by a servant. He stopped me when he came up, and accosted me with, "Pray, Sir, from whence do you come?" "From Killarney." — "And whither

are you going?" "I am going to Bantry." — "And have you a letter of introduction to Lord Bantry?" "Yes; and can you inform me whether his Lordship is at home?" — "Why, to be sure now; and Captain White and his lady are both there, and you'll be heartily welcome." —

'The vanity of the Irish is evinced by some of the commonest appellations; a married woman is never addressed or spoken of as the wife of any one; such an appellation would outrage the feelings, and be most offensive to an Irishman; etiquette requires that the term should be "the lady." Even an hotel-keeper expects when you inquire after his spouse, that you should ask "how his lady does." To speak of her as Mrs. Murphy, Mrs. O'Flaherty, or Mrs. O'Flanagan, would be considered as ill bred.' —

'Formerly, excessive drinking prevailed among the higher orders, but this practice is now entirely out of fashion; instead of this symbol of ancient barbarism, a custom much more rational has been introduced. The gentlemen do not drink until tea and coffee are announced; every one when he feels disposed leaves the table without ceremony, and retires to the drawing-room. The host, however, conceives himself bound by the laws of hospitality to remain at his post till the last, as he is never disturbed by a call from the ladies.

'Amongst mercantile people and rich graziers, most copious libations are still offered at the shrine of Bacchus; but fashion begins to exercise a most beneficial influence, and the example of the higher ranks is now generally imitated. The common people, however, are still much addicted to spirituous liquors.' —

'Notwithstanding the difference of prices in England and Ireland, every article being cheaper in the latter, the first establishments in Ireland are inferior to those of a respectable farmer among us. There are more servants, more horses, and more acres in hand; yet fewer comforts are to be found in an Irish family, than in one maintained at two-thirds of the expence in England. Celibacy being unfashionable, domestic servants are in general married; hence an incalculable waste is occasioned, and servants are frequently kept because their masters have not the funds to pay them their wages.' —

'Ireland is a country where aristocratical influence is more prevalent than in England. Every thing which government has to bestow being reserved for parliamentary interest, and conferred on the higher order of Protestants, there is no middle order of people to balance between the very great and the very humble. Regiments of militia have been raised for the purpose of extending patronage, by giving the nomination of officers to certain individuals. Barracks have been erected for the purpose of creating a market for an adjoining property. If we look at the pension list, and examine the sums paid by way of compensation, a momentary doubt will not be entertained, that in Ireland a wide-spreading system of corruption prevails. During the existence of the Irish parliament, the very idea of honesty was held in derision. When a gentleman, whose wife and daughters were loaded with the weight of public money, rose to address the Legislature, and began by saying, "If ever I gave an honest vote in my life——," the roar of laughter was so great that he could not proceed.' —

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“The prevalence of what is here termed *jobbing*, is every where so conspicuous that no useful enterprise is undertaken, without being considered by the people as “a job.” I did not myself escape the imputation; for many of the news-papers assured their readers, that I was paid five guineas a-day by government, and they asked, “Who would waste his time without remuneration?”

It deserves to be noticed, as a proof of the social disposition of the Irish, that a labourer is never seen to work alone, not even in a barn. — All the large towns have suburbs, occupied by the poor, which in some places are distinguished by the name of “Irish-town.” They usually consisted of mud cabins thatched with straw, and half buried amid heaps of dirt; a description which was formerly applicable, in truth, to most parts of the provincial towns. During the last age, however, a visible amendment has taken place; and the more affluent inhabitants now occupy stone-built houses, with slated roofs.

Condition of the Females. — Among the lower orders in Ireland, women are treated with much less tenderness than in England. In the country, they are subjected to the laborious drudgery of digging turf or setting potatoes, and in the towns they are daily seen bending under the pressure of heavy loads. In consequence of this harsh treatment, and of continual exposure to the weather, they exhibit, at an early period, the marks of old age. Nothing, it must be confessed, affords a more striking indication of the backward state of a country, than the harsh treatment of the weaker sex. — Early marriage is common in Ireland among all ranks. Instead of waiting, as with us, until a provision of some kind is made, it is not unusual for a young couple to begin the world in debt, which they have a confident expectation of speedily discharging, though it too often happens that one burden is merely the forerunner of another; and Irish females, by marrying under the age of twenty, enter on the most important duties of life in a very inexperienced state of mind. — Among other points which call for condemnation, is the practice, unfortunately too general, of putting children out to nurse. Mr. W. complains, (Vol. ii. p. 797.) in terms which, we hope, are too positive, of the prevalent habit of parents contracting an alliance for a daughter on views of mere calculation, and with little consideration of the feelings of the parties. Among the lower orders, with whom the pressure of poverty is felt, we are more inclined to take the author's words in their literal meaning:

“The same picture, but in an humbler degree, may be traced through every rank downwards, until it exhibits an interesting young female in the bloom of youth and beauty, exposed as it were in a public mart. This practice is avowed without a blush by the moun-

tain farmers in the wilds of Kerry, and I have beheld with pain and astonishment such scenes in the course of my tour.'—

* *Belleoue*, Feb. 13. 1809. One of the house-maids, a pretty young woman twenty-two years of age, was this day married to a man old enough to be her father. He was a widower with five children, and before so great a stranger to her, that she had never so much as heard his name. He had seen her at church, and though he had never spoken to her, sent her a message that he would marry her. Upon inquiry, I find that such sudden marriages are very common. The girl bears a most excellent character. Her chief inducement to marry was the settlement; that of the man, a scarcity of Protestant women.'

Reverting to the upper ranks, it deserves to be remarked that family-pride in Ireland forms, in general, an effectual safe-guard against unequal alliances. It is rare that a genteel woman consents to marry a man born in an inferior station of life; and, on the other hand, a natural daughter, though liberally endowed, has little chance of forming a respectable connection. Though the Irish ladies do not escape Mr. Wakefield's sweeping severity, for their unforgiving strictures on the less correct part of their sex, he does them ample justice in other respects; and he dwells with pleasure on their sympathetic and charitable disposition, declaring that he could fill a volume with instances of their benevolence. As to their exemplary character in a moral point of view, he fully confirms what we recently laid before our readers (Vol. lxvi. p. 175.) from the observation of another traveller. In treating of the county of Sligo, he says,

'The women in this part of the country are easy and unreserved in their manners. When the English regiments were here, after the rebellion, the officers found them exceedingly fond of every social amusement; but, being unacquainted with Irish manners, they conceived that the squeeze of the hand while leading down the merry dance on the green, or the half-reluctant kiss in a corner, were indications of further favours. In this, however, they found themselves egregiously mistaken. In Ireland, a female, as in Scotland and in every country where the heart is uncorrupted, will converse freely, and sometimes indulge in *double entendre*, which would call a blush to the cheeks of our town-bred ladies; yet, their hearts are pure, and their virtue so well guarded as to be in no danger.'

We are now to bring to a close these long descriptions of Ireland and Irish manners, and to direct our attention to the merits of the writer. The principal alloy to our good humour with regard to Mr. W. arises from that cause which so often exhausts the patience of reviewers, — an unfortunate diffuseness and prolixity of style. By an odd coincidence, his fellow-labourer in the Irish vineyard, Mr. Dewar, has fallen into the same kind of trespass: but some shades of difference prevail in the nature of

their respective transgressions. Grievously, as Mr. W. has erred in repetition, the "head and front" of his offending consist in the introduction of extraneous matter. Possessing more scholarship than generally falls to the lot of an agriculturist, he is not exempt from the ambition of displaying it. He is no stranger to the good writers in his own language; and of Greek and Latin, as well as of some less classical tongues, he appears to possess sufficient knowledge to enable him to gratify his appetite for quotation. Hence the advantage, if such his readers consider it, of very copious notes. Part of this stock of annotation we are willing to ascribe to an anxiety to lessen the reader's doubts on disputed points; though, if that be the case, Mr. W. sometimes makes odd miscalculations of the value of the authority. A naturalist, for example, would hardly give belief to a suspicious argument on the testimony (see Vol. i. p. 481.) of such a book as Hall's *Travels in Scotland* *. To find a specimen of the profuse introduction of irrelevant matter into the text, we need seek no farther than the chapter on 'Bogs;' where we find (Vol. i. from p. 86. to 102.) a string of general observations on the bogs and marshes of the world at large, which would be much better adapted to a philosophical treatise on those stubborn impediments to husbandry, than to a local survey of Ireland. Next to the offence of unnecessary expansion, come the never-failing attendants of hasty composition; viz. repetition and want of method. On opening the chapter on 'Irish Manners,' the reader is forcibly struck with the unfortunate distribution of materials. The account of provincial habits, and even the more limited report of the manners of Dublin, are interspersed with particulars evidently belonging to the general head of national character; and, which is worse, before one part of the picture is finished, another is thrust into view without any reference to the degree of their mutual relation.

We are ready to admit that the reduction into order of so large a mass would have been a task of no trifling compass. As the book stands at present, so many superfluities remain to be expunged, so many transfers to be made from one title to another, and so many subdivisions to be laid down, that nothing less than a transcript of the whole is requisite to bring it into proper arrangement. Laborious as this would have been, it is the part of an author to remember that the objects dearest to him, — we mean the promotion of utility and the acquisition of reputation, — are dependant, for their attainment, on the degree of castigation to which he has the resolution to sub-

* For a character of that work, see M. R. Vol. lvi. p. 19.

ject his composition. The impatience to make an early communication of his views should never be allowed to outweigh the consideration of the injury attendant on the misplacing of important materials. To go prematurely to press is productive of evils that are not easily remedied; and it might have occurred to Mr. W. that a step of this nature could as little be recalled, as those early marriages which he so pointedly censures on the part of our Hibernian brethren. — In a case like that of the present work, where the mass of materials is so large, it is worth while to consider whether an author cannot dictate what he has not time or patience to transcribe. Dr. Campbell, the author of the Political Survey of Britain, derived, we believe, much accommodation from this plan in his voluminous productions; and those, who are not disposed to put his example in competition with their objections to such a method, may find a more convincing proof of its advantages in the case of Adam Smith.

Desuktory, however, as is the composition of Mr. Wakefield, and unfavourable as this fault is to a continued perusal, the work will be found to contain an extensive store of useful information. The author has very properly avoided the endless theme of historical and antiquarian disquisition, and has confined the objects, if not the mode, of his discussion, to topics of the present day. The official documents inserted are also both recent and well chosen; so that, on the score of reference, the publication is of considerable value. It is not the less commendable for containing occasionally extracts in the journal-form; a form possessing no small share of the animation which arises from noting transactions at the date of their occurrence; and it is this animation which constitutes the chief attraction of travels when given in the shape of epistolary communications. We have sometimes remarked verbal inaccuracies, of which, however, we shall notice only one example. We allude to the word 'instigation,' which is used by Mr. W. on occasions on which its first meaning, "incitement to ill," must have been farthest from his thoughts. It occurs (Vol. ii. p. 402.) when he is describing Mrs. Wakefield's zeal in behalf of the Lancasterian system of education; and again (Introduction, p. 17.) when treating of that grave and certainly not evil-intentioned body, the "Dublin Society." — To conclude; we rise from the perusal of Mr. W.'s book with feelings which will probably be general among his readers; viz. an approbation of the honesty with which he has delineated his picture, and a deep sense of how much yet remains to be done for the amelioration, we had almost said the redemption, of the country which is the object of his details.

ART. IV. *Geological Travels.* By J. A. Deluc, Esq., F.R.S. Vols. II. and III. Travels in England. Translated from the French Manuscript. 8vo. 1l. 4s. Boards. Rivingtons.

WE have already given an account of the first volume of this work, and most of the remarks which we made respecting it will apply to the two that are now before us. They contain a relation of several geological journeys, which the author undertook for the purpose of illustrating the positions which he had advanced in his "Elements," and of combating the opinions of Mr. Playfair. Mr. Deluc's researches were principally confined to the S. W. part of this kingdom, in the counties of Hants, Dorset, Devon, Cornwall, and Somerset. His method, as we remarked on the former occasion *, is to give a very minute detail of every appearance that he observed, and of every circumstance that occurred during his journey; and to apply them in all cases to the great object which he had in view, so that nothing is left for the reader to add, either of fact or inference. This plan has some advantages; since it excites the idea of accuracy, and impresses the mind with the greatest confidence in the veracity and good faith of the writer: but at the same time it produces much repetition, and suffers the attention to flag, in consequence of the frequent recurrence of the same descriptions and the same explanations. The general result, however, is that the author seems to have clearly made out his case; to have shewn that Mr. Playfair's hypothesis, although extremely plausible and ingenious, is not countenanced by an appeal to existing phenomena; and that, though it may have strong analogies in its favor, yet a still stronger evidence of fact may be brought in opposition to it. These volumes derive also a peculiar interest and value from the circumstance of their giving a minute account of those districts, which Mr. Playfair had cited as affording the most direct examples in support of his opinions; and which parts are reviewed by Mr. Deluc with a particular reference to the deductions that had been previously formed concerning them.

The author's first expedition was into Dorsetshire, Hampshire, and the Isle of Wight. Three great points he proposed to make the especial objects of his inquiry and examination, as forming fundamental parts of the Huttonian hypothesis; and they are stated in the form of queries:

'Whether the land-waters have cut their passage to the sea? — Whether the waters of the sea have opened for themselves an entrance into the lands? — And whether the earthy particles, carried to the

* See Rev. Vol. lxxvii. N. S. p. 48.

sea by rivers, quit the coasts, and diffuse themselves over the depths of the ocean? — It will be seen, by the details into which my observations will lead me, that these three questions embrace almost the whole of the history of the earth; and indeed all the discussions, which have hitherto taken place in geology, evidently shew the importance of not leaving these objects involved in any obscurity.

In order to acquire a correct idea of the nature of the action which the sea has exercised on the land contiguous to it, and of the extent of these changes, it is highly important to become acquainted with the position of the strata in the neighbouring country; and therefore, although the author's attention was chiefly directed to the phenomena of the sea-coast, he took every opportunity of examining the mineralogy of the interior. The Isle of Portland, and the Chesil-bank which is attached to it, afforded him many interesting observations. The Chesil-bank is a prodigious mass of sand and gravel, raised up in the form of a mound, lying parallel to the west side of the island; and separated from it by a narrow estuary, which is several miles in length. The materials of this immense bank have evidently been cast up by the waves of the sea; and the phenomenon affords a strong argument against the opinion of Mr. Playfair, that the sediment of rivers is deposited at the bottom of the ocean and tends to raise its level. The foundation of such banks or bars near the coast, or at the mouths of rivers, is supposed to consist of a ridge of submarine rocks, formed at the time when the strata of the earth experienced that revolution, or catastrophe, which reduced them into their present condition. This opinion is supported by tracing the connection between these banks or bars, and the ridges of rocks in the neighbouring districts; and by pointing out the progressive accumulation of gravel and sand, in situations in which a similar kind of support is afforded to the loose materials that are carried down rivers, and deposited by the waves near the coast.

In the neighbourhood of Weymouth, Mr. Deluc notices a peculiar configuration of the land near the sea, which is probably more or less common on all shores, but which seems to be remarkably prevalent on the south coast of our island. It is called, in the provincial language of the country, a *combe*; which is described to be a valley that does not intersect the ridges of the hills, but terminates in the upper part of them by a narrow end, gradually becoming wider as it descends, until it opens with a considerable mouth either into some larger combe or on the shore of the sea. Mr. Deluc insists much on the shape of these combes as affording a very decisive objection to the Huttonian hypothesis of the formation of vallics; because,

so far from our having any evidence that they have been hollowed out by the action of rivers, most of them have no stream of water, or one by far too small to have produced any material effect on the land, even although we should allow that it had been flowing for a number of ages. These vallies are supposed by the author to originate in displacements of the strata of the earth, by fissures or by partial subsidences; and he thinks that the action of running waters, and of the elements, has tended to diminish rather than to increase their cavities. The series of phenomena attending the situation and formation of this peculiar kind of valley is one of those which most frequently occurs in the course of these volumes, and seems to be among the points which the author has most strenuously laboured and most clearly established.

Another of the questions at issue between Mr. Deluc and Mr. Playfair is the origin of the beds of gravel that are occasionally found on hills. The latter gentleman contends that they afford a proof of the gradual decomposition of the surface of the earth, which is continually though imperceptibly going forwards; and he supposes that the gravel must have been transported into its present situation by the action of running waters from some more elevated spot. Mr. Deluc, on the contrary, by observing the form of the adjoining districts, and the nature of their strata, deems it impossible that the gravel can ever have been deposited since the period at which the earth assumed its present form; and he consequently concludes that the deposition must have taken place when the present continents were covered by the ocean. This is an observation which frequently recurs in the course of these travels; in the hills of Dorsetshire, of Devonshire, and in the Isle of Wight. That beautiful island, which the author examined with considerable attention, afforded, by the position of its strata, an illustration of the partial subsidence and consequent elevation of the solid parts of the earth's surface, which form so essential a feature of his hypothesis; and it seems evident that, by a subsidence of the northern coast of the island, the cliffs on the opposite side have been raised, and the channel has been formed which separates it from the main land.

The author's second expedition was principally confined to Dorsetshire; and some of the most interesting of his observations were made in the district which is called the Isle of Purbeck. In this part of the coast, as in very nearly all other cases, he found the sea gradually filling up the bays, by the sand and gravel which it was continually driving into them; and the rivers contracting their beds by the sediments which were deposited at their mouths. The situation of the strata in
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the Purbeck quarries furnished him with an additional proof of his position, that they must have assumed their present general form while lying at the bottom of the sea, before the birth of the present continents. One of the circumstances, which he supposes to be most decisive in his favour, is the occurrence of horizontal strata, lying on such as are nearly vertical.

‘ The upper strata, as well as the lower, must have been formed in the sea ; now, as in the Huttonian theory, the latter are supposed to have been broken in the very act of elevation which brought them above its level, this circumstance has of necessity led to the strange hypothesis already refuted under different forms ; namely, that subsequently to the production of our continents by elevation, some of their parts, by subsidence, returned below the level of the sea, where new strata were formed upon them ; after which they were again elevated.’

Mr. Deluc's attention is next engaged by the geology of Devonshire and Cornwall ; and into those counties he made two journeys which may be considered as the most interesting of the series. This remark depends, in some degree, on the circumstance mentioned above, that Mr. Playfair had pointed out these districts as affording him proofs of his own hypothesis ; whereas Mr. Deluc, after a survey which appears to have been much more minute, conceives that all the phenomena tend to the opposite conclusion. In his first journey, he passed through Devonshire, and only entered on the borders of Cornwall : but, in a second expedition, he proceeded quite to the Land's End. In illustration of the Huttonian hypothesis respecting the formation of the beds of rivers, Mr. Playfair particularly referred to the south coast of Devonshire and Cornwall ; and, after having stated in general terms that the valleys through which rivers discharge themselves, in elevated and rocky countries, have been actually produced by the waters of these rivers gradually cutting through the rock which composes their bed, he observed :

“ Let us take, for an example, the coast of the British Channel, from Torbay to the Land's End, which is faced by a continued rampart of high cliffs, formed of much indurated and primeval rock. If we consider the breaches in this rampart, at the mouths of the Dart, of the Plym and Tamer, of the river at Fowey, of the Fall, the Hel, &c. it will appear perfectly clear, that they have been produced by their respective streams. Where there is no stream, there is no breach in the rock, no softening in the bold and stern aspect which this shore every where presents to the ocean. If we look at the smaller streams, we find them working their way through the cliffs at the present moment ; and we see the steps by which the larger valleys of the Dart and the Tamer have been cut down to the level of the sea.”

Mr. Play-

Mr. Playfair farther remarked,

"That no convulsion that can have torn asunder the rocks, no breach that can have been made in them, antecedent to the running of the waters, will account for the circumstance of every river finding a corresponding opening, by which it makes its way to the sea; and for that opening, being so nearly proportional to the magnitude of the river. That rivers have run upon a level as high as the highest of the cliffs on the sea-shore; and that therefore we must suppose, that the land then extended many miles farther into what is now occupied by the sea."

To this hypothesis, Mr. Deluc opposes the following:

"That, from the origin of our continents, the streams formed by the land-waters have entered the same channels, and discharged themselves into the sea by the same openings, through which we see them flow at present; — that these channels, and the openings themselves, were the effects of convulsions of the strata, not only antecedent to the time when those waters began to flow, but to the birth of the continents: — that these waters, since they have begun to flow, have raised their channels, instead of deepening them: — and that the sea, far from having encroached on the lands, has, on the contrary, been almost every where removed to a distance from them."

To prove this theory by reference to fact, and especially to those very facts which had been adduced by his adversary as countenancing the contrary opinion, is the object which the author had continually in view during his progress along the coasts of Devonshire and Cornwall. He attempts to substantiate his opinion by shewing, that the size of the valley is frequently out of all proportion to the size of the river which flows through it; that, in some instances, vallies are to be seen without any stream; that the opposite sides of vallies are composed of different materials; that the position of the rocks in the neighbourhood is such as to evince that a fissure or subsidence has occurred in the strata to which the valley has owed its formation; that the rivers are obviously filling up the valleys through which they flow, by the deposition of their sediments; that the bed of the rivers at their mouths is often much below the level of the sea; and that the nature of the cliffs, which skirt the coast, seem to indicate that the limit of the ocean in these parts was never materially different from that which exists at present. On every one of these points, we think, the author has adduced some striking evidence; and the general impression on our minds is, that no one can read his account of this country without feeling a conviction of the correctness of his views.

In passing over the district of Dartmoor, Mr. Deluc recurs to the phenomena of the granite blocks which are profusely scattered over the surface of the ground, where the subjacent
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stratum is of a different kind, where no contiguous elevation occurs from which the blocks can have been transported, and where they are dispersed in so partial a manner as to shew that they could not have been deposited by any cause operating generally over the whole surface. In our account of his first volume, we stated Mr. Deluc's hypothesis on this subject;—he ascribes the existence of these blocks, under their present circumstances, to the violence of the commotions which took place when 'the internal fluids, compressed by the subsidence of the separated masses, cast out these fragments detached by the collision of those masses in their regular motions.' The subject is of considerable difficulty: but perhaps the conjecture of the author may be well founded; and we agree with him so far as to believe that these blocks were deposited nearly in their present position by some violent revolution, which took place before the earth received its present form.

As our limits will not permit us to follow the author in his tour through Cornwall, we shall only add that he appears to have surveyed it with his accustomed accuracy, and that he details his account in such a way as to convey to the mind a conviction of his perfect fidelity as an historian of the phenomena of nature. We must also repeat our testimony to the candor which Mr. Deluc, in all instances, observes towards his opponents: although much interested in the establishment of his own opinion, he never attempts to effect his purpose by any improper arts; he always states the contrary hypothesis with fairness; and he never permits any expressions to escape him which ought to give irritation to his antagonist.

ART. V. *An Experimental Examination of the last Edition of the Pharmacopœia Londinensis; with Remarks on Dr. Powell's Translation and Annotations.* By Richard Phillips. 8vo. 5s. 6d. Boards. W. Phillips, Underwood, &c. 1811.

IT is now generally admitted that the Royal College of Physicians, in their late edition of the Pharmacopœia, completely failed in their object; and that, instead of producing a work which was creditable to themselves and valuable to the public, they brought forth an abortion which would have been disgraceful to the merest tyro in science, and which is, in many respects, inferior to the one that it was intended to supersede. If the conviction of this truth should not have flashed on the mind of every practitioner from a bare perusal of the Pharmacopœia, and if it had not received ten-fold force by an inspection of the notes of the grand agent of the College, Dr. Powell, it cannot

cannot fail to be impressed on the mind in the most forcible way by the tract of Mr. Phillips ; a tract which is at the same time one of the most severe and one of the most just pieces of criticism that we have ever perused. He has proved in the clearest manner that the performance in question, though issuing from the walls of a college assuming to itself all the medical learning of the age, and possessing the legal power of enforcing obedience to its commands, is filled with blunders and inconsistencies ;—blunders fraught with danger to the lives of the community, and inconsistencies that render those processes impracticable which all the apothecaries in England are ordered to imitate. Such evils are, indeed, the necessary consequence of the illiberal system of exclusion on which the College is founded, and which is at present maintained in all its rigor.

After some remarks on the manner in which this unfortunate official work was produced, the author proceeds to examine in regular order the various preparations which it contains ; and while in pursuit of this object he displays his own great skill in chemistry and pharmacy, he shews that of the processes adopted by the wisdom of the College, some are impossible and others inadequate, some wasteful and others unchemical ; that in some instances a substance is procured different from the one which was intended, and that in others the process is dangerous to the operator. In addition to all these serious imputations, is one that is still more weighty ; the charge of a degree of inaccuracy that is unpardonable, and almost inconceivable.

Mr. Phillips begins by making some remarks on the new nomenclature of weights and measures which the College has formed : he conceives that the change was not requisite ; and he shews that, either through ignorance or carelessness, the terms are employed in a manner that is inconsistent with the principles on which they were adopted, and in some cases involve inextricable confusion. A circumstance which must forcibly impress the mind of every person, who studies the new Pharmacopœia, is the number of unnecessary changes that have been introduced into it ; changes for which it seems impossible to assign any cause, except that restless desire of novelty which is so characteristic of imbecillity. This remark is well illustrated in the preparation of the diluted nitric and sulphuric acids ; the strength of which is now considerably altered, and in a ratio different from each other : the one having been increased, while the other has been reduced, without any conceivable advantage either to the compounder or the practitioner. In both cases, also, the observations of Dr. Powell are glaringly erroneous :

‘ In the Pharmacopœia of 1787, the *Acidum Nitricum dilutum* was prepared by mixing equal weights of acid and water : in the present, nine measures of water are added to one measure of acid, and the comparative strength of these mixtures is stated by Dr. Powell to be as 16 to 10. I shall examine this conclusion.

‘ The bulk of equal weights of fluids being inversely as their specific gravity, that of the nitric acid formerly ordered is 1.0, and that of the water 1.5 ; together 2.5 for the bulk of mixture containing one part of acid. But in the new mode 10 parts of the mixture contain also 1 part of acid ; wherefore the strength of the old preparation is to that of the new as 10 to 2.5 ; or as 40 to 10, instead of 16 to 10.

‘ From a cause which cannot be mistaken, no reason whatever has been assigned for the change introduced in this preparation.’—

‘ In the former Pharmacopœia, one part of sulphuric acid was directed to be mixed with eight parts of water ; both by weight : the College now order fl. oz. $1\frac{1}{2}$ of the acid to be mixed with fl. oz. $14\frac{1}{2}$ of water, and we are rather whimsically informed, that this change has been effected because “this mixture will be more conveniently made, and its dose more easily apportioned than the former one.” Now to find the proportion of the weights of the ingredients was before sufficiently easy ; to ascertain the volume of each required a little calculation, which is now requisite if the relative weights of the ingredients be sought ; and the relative volumes of acid and water selected for the reasons above quoted are in the inconvenient proportion of 3 to 29.

‘ I shall proceed to examine the assertion, that this preparation bears to the former one the proportion of 139 to 100. The bulk of one part by weight of sulphuric acid being called 1.0, that of 8 parts of water is 14.8, making together 15.8, for the bulk of the mixture containing one part of acid ; 47.4 of the mixture then hold 3 parts of acid, the quantity contained in 32 parts of the new preparation ; and the strength of the new is to that of the old as 47.4 to 32, or as 148 to 100.’

The *liquor ammoniac* of the late Pharmacopœia affords a striking example of the carelessness and ignorance of the new legislators. Mr. Phillips justly remarks ; ‘ When any preparation has been long in use, and its dose consequently generally understood, it seems unadvisable even to improve the method of procuring it, if the alteration necessarily occasions any variation in its strength ; in the present instance, however, the process has not only been changed for one which is worse, but the medicine has been most materially altered in power.’ The author then enters into an elaborate criticism on the mode in which the article is directed to be procured, which seems to be on several accounts objectionable. Its strength is increased five-fold, yet the same dose is still ordered as of the former ; and it is added in the usual proportion to those preparations of which the *ammoniac* forms a constituent part. The consequence is that
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the nature of the volatile tinctures and other ammoniacal preparations is materially altered; and that the doses of these substances which were formerly prescribed could now scarcely be swallowed, although the new preparations retain the same names with the old.

It is respecting the metallic substances, however, that the College has committed the grossest and most dangerous blunders, that Dr. Powell's illustrations are the most intricate, and that Mr. Phillips displays to most advantage his critical acumen. This author's remarks on the antimonial preparations are of peculiar value, as tending to counteract the errors of the College, and to give a considerable share of new information on this important class of compounds. The different oxyds of antimony are considered by the College as similar in their nature, and this mistake is farther enforced by Dr. Powell; yet what novice in science is not acquainted with their difference, and knows not that some of them are nearly inert in the stomach, while others are medicines of the most active nature? For the preparation of tartar-emetic, the College directs that peculiar oxyd to be employed which is called the powder of Algaroth; on which subject Mr. Phillips observes:

‘ After all that has been said of the extreme impropriety of employing this oxide, I am disposed to think that the method of preparation is, if possible, worse than the medicine itself. It has not a single property essential to a good process; whilst every property which it does possess is more than sufficient to stamp it bad. It is peculiarly unfortunate, that of uniformity, the very property for which it is said to have been introduced, it is absolutely destitute; and I will venture to assert without fear of contradiction, that if Dr. Powell have tried the process, some of the properties which he attributes to the product must have arisen from his procuring what it was not his intention to obtain, otherwise he would not have ventured to recommend ten grains of this oxide as a dose, nor would have asserted, that when two parts of it are boiled in a solution of three parts of tartar, “ more oxyd than may be strictly necessary is directed.” ’

To complete the sum of transgressions, it appears that tartar-emetic cannot be procured by complying with the process which is directed by the College.

In this manner, Mr. Phillips proceeds through the remainder of the Pharmacopœia; he wields the lash of criticism with a most severe hand: but a very attentive perusal of his work has convinced us that the instances are extremely few in which his remarks are not just and his objections not solid. Little as we were disposed to estimate highly the labours of the College, and still less those of Dr. Powell, we confess that we did not conceive it possible that such a mass of errors could have proceeded even

from such sources. It is indeed absolutely necessary either that the Pharmacopœia be again revised, (or rather entirely new-modelled,) or that the body of the profession should resolve to employ the old edition.

It may be proper to remark, that Mr. Phillips gives his entire assent to the objections that were urged by Dr. Bostock, in his pamphlet against the nomenclature of the new Pharmacopœia.

ART. VI. *A Chart of Ten Numerals in Two Hundred Tongues*, with a Descriptive Essay: extracted from the 7th and 8th Numbers of the Classical, Biblical, and Oriental Journal. By the Rev. R. Patrick, Vicar of Sculcoats, Hull. 8vo. pp. 51. Sherwood and Co. 1812.

LANGUAGE is instinctive in the human race. A mother and her child soon contrive names for the objects and actions to which they have occasion in common to attend; and though the parent may attempt to dictate the first words, she is naturally induced so to modify them as to render them most easily uttered by the infant. Hence, in all languages, the easiest syllables, *mamma*, *amme*, *mama*, have been applied to the ideas, *breast*, *nurse*, *mother*, which first require a place in human nomenclature. Children concert with one another an additional set of names and nicknames; of which, for the most part, onomatopœia is the basis. The feeder, or father*, of the family progressively introduces those words which must one day connect his young people with the exterior world; and thus, in a state of savage anarchy, each household grows up with a peculiar talk, having some words that are understood only at home, and some that are common to the village and to a larger neighbourhood. The more population thickens, and the oftener neighbours meet, the greater is the proportion of words which grow into a public stock, and the smaller is the proportion which remains as heirlooms in particular families. Social migrations, or military company, throw into oblivion the domestic and bring into circulation the general words; and thus tribes, and at length nations, become possessed of a common dialect. A language, like a lake, is formed by the confluence of many petty streams; and then it runs over in one great stream, to mingle with the other spreading idioms of the earth.

It is not so certain that numeration, as that language, is instinctive among mankind. Nations may learn of themselves

* In Latin, *pater* seems to be contracted from *pater*, analogously.

to speak, and of one another to reckon. Their dialects they may form, and their arithmetic they may communicate. In this case, lists of numerals would be a proper basis for tracing the progress of civilization, of commerce, and of the arts of life; but not a proper basis for discovering the affinities of nations, and arranging together the tribes of similar descent; and, accordingly, lists of numerals closely resemble one another in languages which are fundamentally dissimilar.

In the *Remains of Japhet*, a work which greatly resembles the volume before us, both for profusion of erudition and for indistinctness of system, a list of the European numerals is given at p. 317., and compared with those of the ancients. We will transcribe a part of it.

Sanscrit.	Greek.	Latin.	French.	Irish.	Welsh.
1. Ek	Heis	Unus	Un	Aon	Un
2. Dwa	Dub	Duo	Deux	Do	Duy
3. Traya	Treis	Tres	Trois	Tri	Tri
4. Khatur	Tessares	Quatuor	Quatre	Keathair	Pedwar
5. Pancha	Pente	Quinque	Cinq	Kuig	Pymp
6. Shat	Hex	Sex	Six	She	Chuech
7. Sapta	Hepta	Septem	Sept	Sheaghq	Saith
8. Ashta	Oktô	Octo	Huit	Ocht	Uith
9. Nova	Ennea	Novem	Neuf	Nyi	Naw
10. Dasa	Deka	Decem	Dix	Deic	Deg

All these nations have evidently gone to the same cyphering-school. The French, Irish, and Welsh, learned their numbers of the Romans: the Romans, of the Greeks; and the Greeks learned theirs at Nineveh, which was probably the metropolis of the Sanscrit tongue. The languages themselves, however, are not so similar as their numerals, and consist in unequal proportions of the primæval Asiatic idioms. The Greek and Sanscrit have a common basis, which does not comprehend the Celtic. The Latin and French, on the contrary, include a Celtic basis; and the Irish and Welsh have a Cimbric basis, not contained in the other four languages. For any purposes, therefore, of national classification, a list of numerals is treacherous and insufficient. The present author should have compiled a hundred of the more usual and current words; a little vocabulary of the most necessary terms, and especially of such as do not describe foreign wares, religious ideas, or other objects of importation.

The Gothic nations appear to have invented their own numbers; since their numeric terms are all significative. *An*, or one, describes the virile limb. *Duagan*, or two, the eyes. *Tre*, or three, a tree; the fork of the branches and the stem

suggesting a tripartite idea; *Fier* is contracted from *fingers*; and therefore signifies four; *Fem*, or five, is the hand; *Tien*, or ten, means the toes: but the words six, seven, eight, and nine, have been borrowed from the Romans, instead of the round-about expressions previously adopted, such as twice-three, or twice-four. Of all the primary numbers, *seven* appears to have been the most difficult to invent; and hence it is almost everywhere a borrowed word, and is common to the Hebrew dialect as well as to those already specified. In the Koriack, an Asiatic, and in the Jalloffe, an African, and in the Mexican, an American language, five-and-one, five-and-two, five-and-three, five-and-four, stand for the second half of the digits. Our arithmetical figures, as Vilhoison has proved from ancient manuscripts, are corruptions of the letters of the Greek alphabet, and were brought into use by the mathematicians of Alexandria, about the time of the Antonines: but to reckon by tens is almost an organic idea, resulting from our five-fingered hands.

In order to ascertain whether a given tribe invented, or borrowed, its arithmetical table, it is necessary to compile a catalogue of those words which have commonly been made the basis of numerical metaphor. Thus, if in the Madagascar numbers the word *leemo* represents five, it must be next inquired whether this same word signifies *hand* or *foot* in Madegassian. *Tangue* is their word for hands; and *tamboo* for feet. Hence it may be suspected that the Madegassians did not invent their own numbers. On examining farther, it appears that all the Malay nations count with words closely resembling the Madegassian numbers; and it may therefore be inferred that the Madegassians, among whom these numbers are not autochthonous, have learned to reckon of the Malays. The Malay numbers prove a commercial intercourse with the Malays: but they are used by many nations of wholly distinct origin and descent.

We recommend it to the present industrious author, in order to render his work permanently useful, to accompany his lists of numerals with the words of most frequent occurrence; and, as at page 38. to 40., carefully to state from what book each list is derived. Other writers on language can then turn to the authority, and might be able to draw inferences from the entire vocabulary preserved by a given traveller, which could not satisfactorily be deduced from specimens merely numerical. The Persians, like the Greeks and Latins, have their numbers from the nation which spoke Sanscrit: but they derive not from that nation the main basis of their dialect. The path of commerce is to be sought in the numerals of countries, but the path of conquest

conquest in their political dictionary : while, in order to trace the descent and affinity of nations, we must examine their domestic vocabulary, and compare such words as father, mother, son, daughter, brother, sister, hands, ears, eyes, feet, and lips.

In analyzing the tenth chapter of Genesis, the Reverend author justly observes (p. xiii.) that it contains a geographical sketch of primæval Asia ; the metaphor of filiation being there employed to designate provincial subdivisions. So Ferishta begins his oriental history by saying that Dekkan was a son of Hind, who was a son of Shem ; meaning that Dekkan is a subdivision of Hindostan, which is a subdivision of Asia. Noah, therefore, is the name of the entire habitual continent known to the writer, or of what we now call the old world. The idea of personifying the dry land, and of describing it as having alone escaped an universal deluge, with its animals under its custody, in a cage woven of branches of trees, is a striking poetic allegory, worthy from its antiquity and simplicity to be included in the sacred volume, and so to be handed down as an everlasting possession to mankind. Still, we are not convinced that Mr. Patrick has entirely defined aright the early subdivisions. Japhet may nearly answer to Europe : but the Europe, or the West, of the Ninevites and Babylonians, among whom this document originated, included Asia-minor besides the modern quarter of the world. Ham comprizes their south, Syria, Arabia, and Ægypt ; Shem, the more eastern countries. Cush cannot mean Æthiopia, as the translators of Genesis (ii. 13.) would have us believe ; it was washed by the Gihon, which is the Chaboras, and is to be sought in the high lands of Mesopotamia : so that Cush probably included Eden. Schloetzer, writing at Moscow, during the existence and civilization of that ill-fated metropolis, thinks that we may discover in Meshech the *Muscovites* (*Nordische Geschichte*, p. 281.) ; and this theory Mr. Patrick adopts : it has also the sanction of Bochart, and of Michaelis, (*Spicilegium*, p. 51.) ; yet the Massagetai of Herodotus, who about the time of Cyrus made great inroads into Assyria, ought to occur in the list. Perhaps Magog can be tortured into a name for the Massagetai, or Scythians ; which indeed is Schloetzer's opinion. Tarshish is ill rendered by the present author, *Tartessus*. The Tarshish of Scripture is no where the Spanish sea-port below Seville, but the Tarsus in Cilicia, where Saint Paul was born ; which, though now deserted by the sea, was in Jonah's time a sea-port.

Of the Biscayan or Basque language, a vocabulary of the ten primary numerals is given at p. 3. This singular dialect

deserves a more attentive study than antiquarian research (see Mariana, l. i. c. 5.) or than travelled philosophy has yet been able to bestow. It is wholly a mother-tongue, not compounded of the other primæval languages of Europe; such as the Latin, the Celtic, the Cimbric, or the Gothic. In Basque, *eleu* signifies *herd*, and *andia* means *great*; so that the name of the elephant, or great cattle, is native among the Basques. They are consequently an African colony, pressed into the north of Spain by Roman settlers on the eastern coast. Yet they are not remnants of a Carthaginian colony; for neither their numerals, nor any parts of their language, resemble the Hebrew, or Punic, remains. From the *Grammaire Basque de Harriet*, printed at Bayonne in 1741, we will copy a few facts respecting this tongue, which may amuse the speculator. The pronouns are *Ni* for *I*, *He* for *thou*, *Bera* for *he*, *Gu* for *we*, *Ca* for *ye*, *Berac* for *they*. Plurals of nouns are regularly made in *ac*, whence the language of Aquitaine was called in France *langue d'ac*, and hence the name of the antient province of *Languedoc*. Degrees of comparison are thus formed; *Saint*, holy, *Saintuago*, holier, *Saintuena*, holiest: but, as in all other dialects of the world, the adjective good, *On*, is irregular, and has *Hoben*, better, for its comparative. This is expressed by *Hare*, mine by *Enea*, his by *Beria*. The tenses of verbs are formed by means of auxiliaries, not of coalescing terminations. *Guizona*, which designates *man*, signifies also a *fine form*. *Jauna* is *master*; *Jauncos* is *God*; *Sua* is *fire*. *Andrea* is *mistress*, as if from *avea*. *Goicoa* is *high*, *Pinco* is *few*, *Dia* is *much*, *Nasta* is *mint*, &c. *Ni naiz* means *I am*, *Ni dut* is *I have*, &c. The verb agrees with its regimen in number; of which prospective attention we have also traces in the modern Italian. *Ama*, or *mother*, is an unborrowed word, but formed, like all the earlier ideas, with the easier consonants.

In his preface, this learned author adopts a theory hazarded in the Monthly Review for July 1811, that language is confluent, not diffuent; that rude countries and early ages had as many languages as separate families, each inventing its own; and that, with every progress of intercourse and co-operation, the number of these tongues grows fewer and fewer, until at last all will be absorbed and *confused* (if we may use this term for *melted together*) in one universal language common to the whole earth. Yet in the Essay, or Section, (p. 17. to 20.) and again in the Section p. 21. to 37., the old theory is implicitly followed that language was originally one, and is continually diverging and subdividing into many; or that it is diffuent, not confluent. We are aware that this is supposed to be the doctrine of the author of the eleventh chapter of Genesis. — A
tempest

tempest bursts on the tower of Babel. The fellow-labourers consider this phenomenon as the descent of an angry god, not as the natural consequence of the lonely height of the building. They disperse, and soon cease to be able to understand one another. — The general law, that co-operation and intercourse had rendered common to all the Babylonians a given language, is here attested; as also the general law, that segregation and independence particularize the dialects of families and provinces. The only part of the account, in which the writer appears to have trusted inference rather than testimony, is in the proposition that, before the association of the inhabitants of Shinar to build Babylon, their whole land (Gen. xi. v. 1.) was of one language and one speech. He supposes the state, first occasioned by their intercourse, to have been the immemorially permanent one; because his records did not extend back beyond the date of that association: — it is only against this supposition that our theory in some degree militates. In the prior document, (Gen. x. v. 31.) complete evidence occurs of the previous variety of human languages; so that it is inconsistent with that part of Scripture, to maintain the hypothesis of any original single primæval tongue having ever overspread Asia.

At p. 36. Mr. Patrick transcribes, from the *Thesaurus of Hickes*, a table which deserved to have been used as a model for the compilation of these comparative vocabularies. First occur the denominations of those objects which are usually named by onomatopœia. Every original language imitates differently. The *wolf* of the Goths is not derived from the *ululare* of the Latins; because the name of the animal must have existed before the description of his cry; yet in both words the attempt to imitate a howl by an articulate sound is apparent and audible. Secondly, occur the domestic relations. Thirdly, the parts of the body. Fourthly, the surrounding mute scenery of nature, such as sun, moon, fire, water, earth, and snow. In these words, to the formation of which the ear gives no determinate help, the arbitrary variety of structure is wonderful. — Due care has not always been taken in this volume to print correctly the words quoted. For instance, at p. 37., *tinga* is stated to be German for *tongue*, whereas the German word is *zunga*. — On the whole, this work displays more erudition than philosophy, and more reading than judgment: but it comprizes in a small compass an important mass of fact. We anticipate its eventual republication, with tables more comprehensive, an arrangement more perspicuous, and a purpose more definite.

ART. VII. *A Description of the Collection of Ancient Marbles in the British Museum*; with Engravings. Part I. 4to. 18 Plates. 1l. 5s. Boards. (Large Paper, 1l. 15s.) Nicol and Son. 1812.

IN Vol. lxxvii. of our New Series, page 31., we noticed Mr. Combe's description of the antient Terra-Cottas in the British Museum; and we apprized our readers that it was the commencement of a series intended to exhibit the whole contents of that superb gallery of antiquities. The volume before us is the next publication in succession, being the first part of the description of the antient marbles, and displaying the contents of the first rotunda, or second room in the order of passing through the gallery. We observed of the preceding work, that it did not appear with all that costly splendour which often distinguished national productions, the managers being obviously intent on making it more extensively useful by the smallness of the price: but, in examining the present volume, we have the gratification of seeing an evident improvement in the engravings, which testify the advantage of practice in this school of the arts; and this is a benefit which, under the solicitous care of those who have the charge of the undertaking, will doubtless be progressively and widely diffused throughout the country.

A remark occurs in the Introduction, with which all admirers of art and of antiquities must cheerfully accord; viz. 'that the dimensions of the marbles are carefully given; that the names of the places, in which the different articles were discovered, are stated in every instance where they could be ascertained; and that in the engravings, as well as in the written descriptions, particular attention has been paid to distinguish and point out those parts which are not antique. It is to be regretted, that this practice has not been more generally adopted, particularly in the earlier publications on ancient sculpture, as it is in consequence of this omission that the antiquary, relying too much on the accuracy of an engraving, has been frequently led into error.'

Plate 7. is a beautiful engraving of an elegant Bacchanalian vase, accompanied by the following description:

'A vase of an elegant oval form, with two upright massive handles; it is ornamented all round with Bacchanalian figures, which are executed in a style of incomparable excellence. The subject represents the celebration of the orgies of Bacchus by a number of persons who imitate the dresses and characters of a Faun, a Satyr, and male and female Bacchantes. The Faun has a thyrsus in his right hand, and is covered with the skin of a panther; the Satyr is bearing an amphor of wine; the female Bacchantes are dressed in thin transparent drapery which floats in the air; one of them, with her hair dishevelled,

velled, and her head bent forward, is in the act of brandishing a knife, while another is holding the hind limbs of a kid. The male Bacchantes are represented of different ages; one, in the flower of youth, and of a beautiful form, is leaning on the shoulders of a young female; he has a torch in his right hand, and a light cloak hanging over his arm. Near the Satyr are two other male Bacchantes, one of whom, of an aged appearance, and with a pedom in his hand, seems to be in a state of intoxication, and is supported by his more youthful companion. The strong muscular figure, near the centre, with a panther at his feet, and with his right arm uplifted, is in the act of stimulating the votaries of Bacchus to a continuation of the rites, in which endeavour he is seconded by the Satyr, who holds up his right hand in the same action of exhortation. Nearly the whole of these figures, agreeably to the rites of the Bacchanalian games, are in the act of dancing.

‘The Dionysia, or orgies of Bacchus, were instituted in commemoration of his conquest of India, and were celebrated in different parts of Greece, but were observed with greater splendour at Athens, perhaps, than at any other place. At these festivals it was customary for the people to imitate the followers of Bacchus, and to run about the mountains, feigning phrenzy, and repeatedly shouting the name of Bacchus.

‘At the lower part of the body of the vase are eight female figures, holding a patera in each hand; they have wings, and terminate in the form of Tritons. An architectural fragment, which represents a figure precisely similar to these, and which has probably belonged to a temple dedicated to Bacchus, is in the collection of Lord Elgin, and similar representations of male Fauns have occurred in the Terra-cottas. In the ancient sculptures we sometimes see the Bacchic and marine characters united: an instance of this kind occurs in a terminal head, formerly in the Vatican, in which the attributes of Bacchus are blended with those of a Triton. This beautiful vase was found by Mr. Gavin Hamilton in a spot called Monte Cagnolo, in the villa of Antoninus Pius at Lanuvium. When discovered, it was lying in several detached pieces, which have been carefully joined together. The female Bacchanite on the left, and the Faun which is next to her are modern, with the exception of the feet of the former, and of the lower legs and left arm of the latter. The face of the figure which holds the torch is modern, and the left arm of the Satyr as well as a large portion of the head and a part of the amphora have been restored. The rest of the vase, with the exception of the pedestal, is ancient, and in excellent preservation. It measures in height 3 feet $\frac{1}{4}$ inch.’

In plate 8. the artists have been very successful in representing the fine Venus of the late Mr. Townley's collection; of which it is observed that

‘The drapery, though bold, is light and finished, and is supported by being thrown over the right arm. The attitude of the statue is easy and graceful, and the inclination of the head perfectly corresponds with the character and expression of the whole figure. The
sculpture

sculpture is of the highest order, and the original polish of the marble is admirably preserved, but the left arm, the right hand, and the tip of the nose have been restored : upon the whole, this figure may rank as one of the finest female statues which have been yet discovered.

‘ It consists of two pieces of marble, imperceptibly joined at the lower part of the body, within the drapery. The marble of which the body is composed is of a lighter colour, than that of which the drapery is formed, and the beautiful effect produced by this contrast proves that it was not an accidental circumstance, but was the result of previous knowledge and skill in the artist. It was in consequence of the two parts being detached, that they were allowed to be exported from Italy, as fragments of two different statues.

‘ This exquisite piece of sculpture was found in the ruins of the maritime baths of the Emperor Claudius, at Ostia, by Mr. Gavin Hamilton, in the year 1776. A figure of Venus very nearly resembling the present, but with the position of the arms reversed, occurs on a medallion, in bronze, of Lucilla, where the goddess is represented standing at the edge of the sea, or at the head of a bath, surrounded by Cupids, one of which is leaping into the water ; and it is not improbable that the present statue might have been placed, as an appropriate ornament, in the baths which were constructed on the spot where the statue was discovered.

‘ It is 6 feet 11½ inches high, including the plinth ; the latter measures 4½ inches.’

The colossal head of Hercules, plate 11., is thus described :

‘ This colossal head of Hercules is of the finest Greek sculpture. The statue to which this head belonged evidently represented Hercules in a state of repose, and was probably a copy of the famous statue of Glycon, found in the baths of Caracalla, and now in the court of the Farnese Palace ; it was after this model that the bust was restored at Rome. The head, however, differs in several points from that of the Farnese Hercules : the face is broader, the muscles of the cheeks and forehead have more convexity, and the hair of the head and beard is more in distinct masses ; the whole head indeed is executed in a bolder style of art, and is, if possible, characterized by a higher degree of grandeur and sublimity. The ears of Hercules are generally represented of a remarkable form, having a *swola* and lacerated appearance. This peculiarity is very striking in the instance before us. The motive which induced the ancient sculptors to represent Hercules with this particular mark, was in order to denote the injuries he received in the numerous combats in which he had been engaged. This superb head was dug up at the foot of Mount Vesuvius, where it had been buried by the lava of that volcano ; it was presented to the Museum by the late Sir William Hamilton.

‘ The nose, the right ear, and a splinter on the right cheek, are the only restorations it has received. It measures, including the bust, 2 feet 5½ inches in height.’

The elegant console, plate 15., is said to be ‘ a part of one of the supports of an ancient table ; it consists of a double volute, of a very elegant form. The circumsolutions of the upper

upper and lower parts turn in contrary directions. The lower volute serves as a basis or pedestal to a figure of Victory, which fills up the intervening space in a light and beautiful manner. The marble has been so elaborately hollowed out behind this figure, that with the exception of the feet and wings it is perfectly detached.' Mr. Combe will probably alter his opinion of the antient destination of this ornament on looking into Desgodetz's *Antiquities of Rome*, where he will find a very similar subject in the plates of the arch of Trajan.

ART. VIII. *Select Passages of the Writings of St. Chrysostom, St. Gregory Nazianzen, and St. Basil.* Translated from the Greek by Hugh Stuart Boyd. The Second Edition, corrected and enlarged. Royal 8vo. pp. 279. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

ABOUT the middle of the last century, in consequence of Dr. Middleton's *Inquiry into the Miraculous Powers, &c.*, the merit of the Fathers underwent an ample discussion; and their credit was so much depreciated, that their writings were sold in the shops at little more than the price of waste paper. Their childish credulity, their ridiculous narratives, their senseless cant, and their hyperbolical and declamatory style, induced the celebrated Archdeacon Law to say of them, "that they spoke as children, understood as children, and taught as children."

To these antient preachers, however, Mr. Boyd is so extremely partial, that he seems inclined to add the Holy Fathers to the College of the Apostles: but we are disposed to think that the specimens which he has here produced will not recover for them one atom of their faded reputation, nor recommend them as persons of sound judgment, strong reasoning, and vigorous persuasion. Though Mr. B. introduces them with the warmest encomium on 'the purity of their diction, the splendor of their rhetoric, the warmth of their imagination, the richness of their imagery, and above all, their profound knowledge of the human heart,' the judicious reader will not relish their style of eloquence; which would be pronounced by an English audience to be exuberant, vapid, and sometimes imbecile. After an expression of astonishment that these Fathers 'have not been presented to the English reader in an English dress,' Mr. Boyd, in the very next page, speaks of 'the glowing metaphors of Nazianzen,' yet honestly confesses that 'he knows not of any oration of his which would be read with unmixed pleasure to the end, and therefore that he has not translated any one entire.' — That Mr. B. has over-rated the works of the saints specified in the title will surely appear from the

the following short extracts. St. Chrysostom, treating on the efficacy of prayer, uses this extravagant language :

‘ The potency of prayer hath subdued the strength of fire ; it hath bridled the rage of lions ; hushed anarchy to rest ; extinguished wars ; appeased the elements ; expelled dæmons ; burst the chains of death ; expanded the gates of heaven ; assuaged diseases ; repelled frauds ; rescued cities from destruction ; it hath stayed the sun in his course, and arrested the progress of the thunderbolt : in a word, it hath destroyed whatever is an enemy to man.’

What will be said of his comparison of the poor to olive-trees ?

‘ Let us proceed to the service of the poor. This place may be called the Mount of Olives. The poor are olive trees planted in the temple of the Lord, distilling that precious oil which feeds the lamp of our salvation, that oil which the five virgins had.’

Relative to the mystery of the Holy Sacrament, as it is termed, expressions are used which will not pass current with consistent Protestants ; and in one place St. Chrysostom’s weakness and credulity (if it was mere credulity) will excite a smile :

‘ In that hour (that is, when the elements are consecrated,) the angels surround the priest ; each marshalled host attunes the note of gratulation, and all the sanctuary, and all the altar, is thronged with heaven’s radiant tenantry, in reverence of him who lies there ! This might easily have been accredited from the nature of the rites which are then performed. But I have heard a man relating that an aged person, an admirable saint, and one who was in the habit of beholding visions, informed him, he was once blessed with such a sight. He assured him, that when the sacrifice was offered, he beheld instantaneously a multitude of white-robed angels encompassing the altar, and bowing down their heads, as soldiers do homage to their prince. And I, at least, believe it.’

As a specimen of St. Gregory’s *pulpit-eloquence*, we take a passage or two from his farewell sermon, on his resignation of the see of Constantinople, A. D. 381. :

‘ Farewell, O apostles * ! a noble colony, my preceptors in my toil ; although I have less frequently celebrated your rites, bearing in my body the Satan of your Paul, perhaps for my advantage, through which I am removed from you. Farewell, my episcopal chair, thou dangerous yet envied throne ! ye patriarchs, and prelates, alike respected for sanctity and age ! and all who minister at the table of the Lord, drawing near to God, who is near to them ! Farewell, ye choirs of Nazarenes, ye chanters of the psalmodes, ye nightly stations, ye

‘ * He alludes to the relics of St. Andrew, Timothy, and Luke, which were translated to Constantinople by the Emperor Constantius.’

pious

pious virgins, ye sanctimonious matrons, ye tribes of widows and of orphans, ye eyes of the poor for ever fixed on God and us! Farewell, ye hospitable mansions, lovers of Christ, sweet soothers of mine infirmities! Farewell, ye frequenters of my sermons, ye crowds and concourses, ye expeditious notaries, ye rails so often pressed by those who hungered for my discourse! Farewell, ye kings and palaces, ye courtiers and slaves! if faithful to your prince, I question: to God, most frequently, unfaithful. Clap your hands: cry aloud: exalt your oratour: my loquacious and evil tongue is silenced; but it will not be silent always, though at present I forbear. Farewell, O magnificent city, and lover of Christ! —

‘Farewell, O Trinity, my theme of meditation, and my wreath of glory! May’st thou be cherished by, and cherish, these my people!’

At p. 210., after having minutely described the ingenious labours of the bees in the construction of their waxen cells, and in filling them with honey, this saint exclaims, ‘O that we could resemble them! who may be styled *the apiary of Christ.*’ Should some methodistic preacher stumble on this bright thought, in his next sermon, he will perhaps address the elect as *Christ’s bee-bive.*

Towards the end of his work, the motive of the translator seems to develope itself. Mr. B. aims at introducing the evidence of the Fathers as decisive on certain knotty points of controversy; and, in order to lend a helping hand to a very lame argument, he adopts Father Peter’s mode of proceeding, by stigmatizing all those who are adverse to his opinions as ‘*unboly and abandoned writers:*’ (see p. 278.) while, under a semblance of Protestantism, passages are quoted by Mr. B. from the writings of St. Cyril of Jerusalem, which are more in unison with the Popish doctrine of transubstantiation than with any tenet held by the Reformers:

‘Once, in Cana of Galilee, he changed water into wine *, by his native power; and is he not deserving of belief, when he changes wine into blood *? When invited to the celebration of human nuptials, he achieved that deed of surpassing strangeness; and shall we not much more readily acknowledge, that he gives us the fruition of his body and his blood? Wherefore, with all certainty and conviction, let us receive these as the body and the blood of Christ; for in the form of bread his body is given thee, and in the form of wine his blood is given thee, that thou, having participated the body and the blood of Christ, mayst become of the same substance with them.’ —

* The verb μεταβάλλω is used in both these places. We here find Cyril, in unison with Chrysostom, (and indeed with all the Fathers,) asserting that the consecrated elements are miraculously changed. The fact is plain: no man of common honesty would deny it.’

‘The

176 *Eustace's Answer to the Bishop of Lincoln's Charge.*

‘The bread and wine of the eucharist, before the holy invocation of the adorable Trinity are mere bread and wine, but when the invocation has been made, the bread becomes the body of Christ, and the wine the blood of Christ.’

From these extracts, some idea may be formed of the style and merit of the Fathers in question as preachers. Their works are certainly *getting up*, as it is termed, in the market; and in some points of view, they are useful as books of reference: but, if the English reader judges of them from the select passages here given, he will not call for any *wholesale* translation of them; nor will the scholar, who might desire them for mere occasional consultation, be disposed to pay that price for their works, at which they are marked in some recent catalogues.

The present translation, as far as we have examined it, is fairly and even elegantly executed: but occasionally Mr. Boyd takes the liberty of introducing words which are not in the original, for the purpose of rounding the sentence. Thus, in the well known and affecting speech of Chrysostom's mother, in the first book of the treatise on the priesthood, we have this sentence, ‘exhausted nature whispers that I shall not trespass on you long:’ but the words *exhausted nature whispers* have no corresponding terms in the Greek, where the mother merely says that she shall not live long: ἵσως μετὰ μικρὸν ἀπελεύσομαι χρεῖον. Similar insertions may be noticed in other places. The words ‘a stain on the page of nature’ (p. 69.) are interpolations by the translator.

ART. IX. *Answer to the Charge delivered by the Lord Bishop of Lincoln to the Clergy of that Diocese, at the Triennial Visitation in the Year 1812.* By the Rev. John Chetwode Eustace. Second Edition. 4to. pp. 51. Mawman. 1813.

BETWEEN Catholics and Protestants, a new controversy is instituted. The debate refers not now to matters purely spiritual and ecclesiastical, but to the supposed bearings of their respective systems on certain points purely political. As far as religious belief is concerned, they seem to employ so different a process, that they are never likely to come to any accommodation: but, if both systems contain in them nothing hostile to civil governments, both may be fostered by the state with equal safety and advantage, and no reason can exist in the protection of the one for the exclusion of the other. Protestants, however, will demur to this representation: since they have been in the habit of contemplating Catholicism not only as erroneous in point of doctrine, but as big with mischief to the

British constitution, and hence their prejudices against it have been strong and their language violent. Catholics being now required, in self defence, to speak for themselves, the subject is beginning to assume a different aspect. It appears that their clergy are more enlightened than we were led to imagine, that they are not behind us in an abhorrence of despotism, that their notions of religious liberty are often more correct than those of some of our own Protestant divines, and that they disclaim those dangerous tenets which the violence of party has attributed to them.

Mr. Eustace, the author of the present Answer, is a Catholic clergyman of considerable information and acuteness; and though we cannot think that he is justified in charging the Bishop of Lincoln with 'displaying a virulent spirit,' 'with being malevolent,' and with having a design 'to defame the Catholics,' we are persuaded that many of his remarks, on the points fairly at issue between him and the learned prelate, are well founded, and will be so considered by the judicious part of mankind. We could not suppress a smile at the angry tone which he assumes on the Bishop's introduction of the term *Papists*, to denote the members of that Church whose chief pontiff is the Pope. If he had been acquainted with the writings of the Protestants, and had perused the multitude of *sermons* in the English language *against Popery*, he would have known that it is a term familiarized to our divines by general use: but, when they become more intimate with their Catholic brethren, this offensive word will in some measure perhaps grow obsolete, and that which is more acceptable be adopted.

Mr. E. then proceeds to an examination of the positions and arguments which the Charge contains; premising that 'truth and error are so interwoven as to render the task of separation extremely difficult.' In the first place, he combats or rather flatly contradicts an assertion made by the Bishop, and on which his general reasoning turns, that 'the Catholics now demand, not *toleration*, but *political power*;' and regarding this position as containing something equivocal, he offers a statement, in reply, which exhibits a clear view of the object of Catholics in their several appeals to the Legislature. 'The Catholics disclaim every wish and intention of acquiring power or influence of any kind; they ask for no distinction; as a *body* they are only ambitious of being confounded with the rest of his Majesty's subjects without any mark of privilege, or of penalty.' After having attempted to counteract a representation which he considers as 'unfair and invidious,' Mr. E. proceeds in a manner similar to that which we formerly adopted, to notice Dr. T.'s defective definition of *Toleration*; very

pertinently observing that, 'as long as the profession of any particular opinion is *punished* by any loss, forfeiture, or disability, they who hold that opinion cannot surely be said to be in possession of *perfect toleration*.' The word *toleration*, (which expresses only *sufferance*;) we are pleased to find, is growing as much out of fashion as the term Papist. *Unbounded liberty of conscience and of worship*, the privilege now required, goes beyond what is generally called *toleration*; and, as Mr. E. remarks, 'there should be no question of toleration in the present circumstance.' It is contended that, considering the three large independent churches of which the population of the empire is composed, and the various sects of Dissidents, 'liberty of worship' (he does not say, *liberty of conscience*;) is necessary to public tranquillity; and while he agrees with the Bishop in lamenting the growth of sects as an evil, ('an evil arising from the bold and independent spirit of the nation,') he advises no penalties and coercive measures for its cure.

When Mr. Eustace comes to the Bishop's next grand position, that 'the *Roman Catholic Faith* is not only *a system of religion*, but *a system of politics*,' he affects to treat it as 'a perfect novelty,' the object and meaning of which he is unable to guess: but, though he has succeeded very well in representing the genuine Catholic faith to be, *in itself*, as unpolitical a system as Protestantism in its purest form, he cannot be ignorant of the prominent part which the Court of Rome took for centuries in the politics of Europe, and with what insolence its cardinals, legates, and bishops domineered in the courts of princes. Happily, these times are gone, (we should hope) never to return. That we owe the British Constitution to our Catholic ancestors, and consequently that the religious principles of Catholics cannot be adverse to civil liberty, is brought to our recollection: but this negative praise of Catholicism will not content Mr. E., who tells his Lordship that he is 'prepared to maintain, that the fundamental principle of our religion is the freest that can be imagined, because it makes, not the opinion of the decision of an individual, whether pope or bishop, or even of a national church, but the positive well-ascertained belief of the whole Catholic body, the *Rule of Faith*. To this *universality of doctrine*, to this *public testimony*, and to it only, all Catholics of whatever rank or dignity, or attainments, the Pope himself not excepted, are obliged unconditionally to submit.' This passage merits attention not so much on account of the purpose for which it is introduced, as for the explanation which it gives of the origin of the *Catholic rule of Faith*: which is not rested, like that of Protestants, on the *sole evidence*

and authority of the Sacred Scriptures, but on tradition *, or, as it is here termed, the well-ascertained belief of the whole Catholic body; and to this *public testimony*, as Mr. E. calls it, '*unconditional submission*' is required. This unconditional submission in spirituals may, for any thing that we know, be compatible with the most perfect civil freedom: but we are at a loss to perceive how this fundamental principle of unconditional submission is 'the freest that can be imagined.' We believe, however, that '*Christianity in all its forms*' may well amalgamate with the British constitution; and that the latter is no more in danger from the Christianity which rests on the supposed succession of the bishops of Rome from St. Peter and the evidence of the traditions of the Catholic church, than from that Christianity which is deduced wholly and exclusively from the Bible.

Some pains are taken by Mr. Eustace to shew, in opposition to the Bishop's fears, that the Established Church cannot be endangered by conceding the claims of the Catholics:

'A Church Establishment is supported either by the power of government acting in opposition to the wishes and opinions of the majority of the nation; or by the nation in opposition to the opinions of the government; or by the cordial co-operation of both the nation and the government. The Episcopal Church of Scotland was formerly, and the Protestant Establishment in Ireland is at present, in the first predicament. Both common sense and experience conspire to teach us that the existence of such an Establishment must be at all times precarious, and that while it does exist, it must give occasion to endless heart-burnings and discontent. For what more glaring absurdity is it possible for the mind of man to conceive, than that of a clergy without laity, pastors without flocks, teachers without hearers, and churches without congregations?

* *Tradition* is the common law of the Catholic Church, and the *Decrees of General Councils* are its *statute law*: but Protestants reject both these authorities; resting their faith *solely* and *exclusively* on the *Bible* or the *Holy Scriptures*. While these fundamental points of difference exist, the union of our Protestant church with that of Rome is impossible. We Protestants say that, when the apostles died, the whole system of faith was sealed up and complete; and in course we reject, as spurious and unnecessary, every subsequent addition to the Gospel, let it come from whatever quarter it may. However desirable, therefore, an union between Catholics and Protestants may be, it is opposed by such insurmountable difficulties, that we did not expect to find one of our most learned prelates, (Dr. Huntingford) on a late occasion, expressing his surprise that no plan of accommodation between the two churches had been projected. (See his *Protestant Letter to Lord Somers*, noticed in our last Vol., p. 392.)

‘ I know not whether the second case can with strict propriety be said to exist in Saxony, for though the reigning family has long been Catholic, and the establishment Lutheran, yet such has always been the discretion of the sovereign, and such the confidence of the subject, that no obnoxious change has ever been attempted on one side, and no suspicion ever entertained on the other. The Elector of Saxony is a *devout* Catholic, and he is surrounded by Catholic ministers ; a fact which demonstrates more forcibly than any speculative argument, in opposition to your Lordship’s reasoning, that Catholics may be invested with power and yet not be solicitous to overthrow an establishment which they believe to be heretical.

‘ In the third class stands the Church of England, founded upon the early prejudices, the habits, the feelings, and the affections of the majority of the English nation, supported by a splendid establishment, and upheld by a numerous body of clergy connected by birth, education, services, or interest, with all the property and all the power of the country. When to these advantages we add the authority of the sovereign, exerted both in public, and what is still more effective, in private, we have enumerated all the means of security, all the pledges of duration which even caution can require or zeal itself can devise.’

If the concessions to the Catholics are likely to make a change in the public opinion, and thus to diminish the attachment of the nation, the Church of England is in danger : but not otherwise.

Writing as Protestants who have studied the grounds of our faith, and who can (we presume) “ assign a reason for the hope that is in us,” we have not objected to give the Catholics fair play, by permitting them to make as many converts *as they could*. It may be said, however, that we are more bold than wise : but what is the matter of fact ? Mr. E. may hope that things will change hereafter : but for the present he rather comforts the Bishop of Lincoln than congratulates himself by recording the state of the convert-list on both sides of the question :

‘ Point out, my Lord, if you please, the converts lately made, the congregations newly established in your extensive diocese, and the increasing influence of the Catholic clergy. In return, I will present a catalogue, much more gratifying to your Lordship’s feelings, of Catholic families extinct or fallen off, of reduced congregations, and chapels without clergymen. Within these last forty years, notwithstanding the repeal of several penal statutes against us, we have lost five or six noble families, at least as many baronets, and several clergymen, and esquires. In return we have recovered an ancient title (Fauconberg), converted two or three Protestant clergymen, but I fear few or no gentlemen. You see, my Lord, the exchange is against us, notwithstanding the encouragement which the legislature has so *imprudently*, without doubt, held out to us, in allowing us to profess and practise our religion without the chance of being beggared, transported, or hanged.’

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It is very adroitly insinuated that the Church of England, instead of opposing the Catholic Church, should make common cause with it 'against fanatics, puritans, and enthusiasts;' yet, after all, Mr. E. offers it as his decided opinion that no measure will give such strength to the Church Establishment, 'as the repeal of every penal and excluding statute.'

On the subject of the connection of the Catholics with the Pope, Mr. Eustace accuses the Bishop of 'malevolence and misrepresentation,' (hard words,) and endeavours to set the R. R. prelate right on a point which he (Mr. E.) must be allowed to understand better than his Lordship. The definition of the Council of Florence is quoted to prove that the Catholics owe the Pope not *allegiance*, but merely *obedience* in spirituals. To the phrase *Sovereign Pontiff*, which Protestants often apply to the Pope, an objection is also made. Yet, after the nice distinction between *allegiance* and *ultimate obedience*, the connection with a Pontiff *out of the realm*, and in the power of an inveterate enemy, is an awkward circumstance*. Mr. E. throws out a hint that some concession will be made in the case of the Irish prelates, and endeavours to account for their late conduct. 'The Catholics of Ireland, that is the Irish nation, have been disappointed and insulted; we are not therefore to wonder if they should betray some symptoms of ill-humour and irritation.'

Respecting the doctrine of infallibility, the Catholic clergyman offers the Protestant bishop a little pleasantry; asking him, in the words of Steele, '*What is the difference between a Church that never can, and a Church that never does err?*' In a similar way, the Catholic tenet respecting heretics is briefly dismissed: 'Catholics, my Lord, believe that your doctrines are *heretical*; you swear that Catholic doctrines are *idolatrous*.' Towards the conclusion, the author reminds the Bishop of the obligations of the English Established Church to the Catholics, for its universities, and its stately cathedrals, with their appendages; for its creeds, and for the greater part of its liturgy: exhorting him to call the attention of his clergy to the features of resemblance between the two churches, and to the debts of gratitude which are due from the English church to that of Rome.

The Catholics will no doubt be mortified by the late rejection of their bill by the Legislature, and we are sorry for their disappointment; at the same time, we wish them to consider that

* Mr. E. surely cannot expect us to subscribe to his position at p. 30., that the welfare of the state is little concerned as to the place or manner in which the Pope exercises his power. Over a Pope *in* England the state may have some influence: but over a Pope *out* of England, and in the hands of Bonaparte, none.

many Protestants are seriously alarmed on account of the connection of Catholics with a foreign spiritual head, and that means ought, if possible, to be taken to obviate this difficulty.

ART. X. *The Travels of Mirza Abu Taleb Khan*, in Asia, Africa, and Europe, during the Years 1799, 1800, 1801, 1802, and 1803. Written by himself, in the Persian Language. Translated by Charles Stewart, Esq., M.A.S. Professor of Oriental Languages in the Hon. East-India Company's College, Herts. 2 Vols. 8vo., pp. 738. 11. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co.

ALTHOUGH we have long ago had various works under the title of Persian Spies, and other assumed Asiatic designations, the present is, we believe, the first authentic book of the kind. A tour in Europe, by an Orientalist, for the purpose of observing and reporting national manners, is so unexpected a novelty as to possess the strongest claim to the attention of the curious; and this claim acquires additional force when the traveller is found to be a man of considerable experience and knowledge of the world. Fortunately, this work was ushered into notice under circumstances which leave no doubt of its authenticity. The writer was personally known to thousands during his abode in London in 1800 and 1801; and however Professor Stewart may have improved the style and arrangement in translating the narrative, his character affords satisfactory security against any suspicion of interpolation. Under these circumstances, the *Travels of Mirza Abu Taleb* possess interest both on the ground of originality and on that of utility; and those of our readers, who have not had an opportunity of perusing the volumes, will probably receive with satisfaction the brief abstract which we shall now endeavour to give.

Abu Taleb, or, as he is here termed, Mirza Abu Taleb, was born at Lucknow, in 1752, of Persian parents, and was employed early in life as a district-collector of revenue under the government of Oude: but, in the progress of the dissensions in that country after the year 1780, he was left without protection from political enemies, and found it necessary to repair to Bengal. Here, notwithstanding the favourable disposition of Lord Cornwallis, Sir John Shore, (now Lord Teignmouth,) and others, he remained, year after year, without employment. His dependents, seeing no prospect of his getting into office, successively left him; and at last, in 1799, an English gentleman, his intimate friend, having invited him to accompany him to Europe, the dejected Persian accepted the offer, in the gloomy anticipation that in a journey so long and replete with danger, some accident might

might occur to deliver him from the anxieties of the world and the ingratitude of mankind.' Impatient to leave Calcutta, they embarked on board a Danish Indiaman; in which, besides obtaining only indifferent accommodation, they unfortunately had to deal with a selfish unprincipled captain. Their situation was not improved by having as a shipmate a 'Mr. G——d, a very passionate and delicate gentleman,' the *quondam* husband of Madame Talleyrand. Abu Taleb afterward met this person at Paris, soliciting an official appointment through the lady's interest; a point which he actually carried, having received a nomination under the Dutch government at the Cape.

After a disagreeable passage, attended with considerable danger, the Danish ship anchored in False Bay at the Cape; and the passengers, disgusted both with the vessel and the captain, proceeded to Cape-town. Here Abu Taleb had the first opportunity of seeing a city built in the European style. He was highly pleased with it; and, though nowise partial to the character of the Dutch inhabitants, he found means to pass some time between town and country, in a course of agreeable and useful observations. Taking his passage from the Cape to Europe on board a British vessel, he was enabled to see Saint Helena by the way, and arrived in the latitude of the English channel in the beginning of December 1799.

In the case of a traveller to whom European sights and manners were so strange, it is of some importance to take notice of the first impressions. The Cove of Cork was the place at which Abu Taleb first set his foot on European ground; and the extent and circular form of the bay, the verdure of the hills, the appearance of the town on one side, and the neat houses and romantic cottages on the other, with the forts and the number of surrounding vessels, conveyed to his mind the most pleasing sensations. At Cork, he was struck with the elegance of the shops, but disappointed by the low situation of the town and the dirtiness of the streets; which last appearance, however, was owing, in a great measure, to the season of the year. On entering his hotel, he was gratified with the commodious extent of the apartments and the prompt attention of the servants, which formed a complete contrast to the slowness of his countrymen. The regularity of the houses, and their height, but particularly the glass in the windows, were all objects of attention to an Asiatic traveller. — The next occurrence was a visit to the country-house of a gentleman:

'I was particularly pleased with his cook-room, it being the first regular kitchen I had seen: the dressers for holding china, the racks for depositing the dishes after they were washed, the pipes of cold and boilers of hot water, which, merely by turning a cock, were supplied

supplied in any quantity that could be required, with the machinery for roasting meat, which was turned by smoke, all excited my admiration.

Aware of the multiplicity of servants required by our countrymen in India, Abu Taleb declares that his Irish friend lived as comfortably on his small property of a few hundreds a-year, as an English gentleman in India could do on an annual income of a lack of rupees. (12,500l.)—He proves himself, throughout his journey, to be remarkably attentive to the ladies, and the first specimen of that disposition is given in his account of the nieces of this gentleman's family :

‘ These ladies, during dinner, honoured me with the most marked attention ; and as I had never before experienced so *much courtesy from beauties*, I was lost in admiration. After dinner these angels made tea for us ; and one of them having asked me if it was sweet enough, I replied, that, having been made by such hands, it could not but be sweet. On hearing this, all the company laughed, and my fair one blushed like a rose of Damascus.’

When travelling from Cork to Dublin in the mail-coach, he was highly amused at the readiness with which the people of the inns, on hearing the sound of the horn, prepared the fresh horses, and avoided delay : but he was greatly mortified at the shortness of the time allowed for meals on the road. He was remarkably delighted with the view, transient as it was, of Kilkenny, and employed the interval allowed to breakfast in catching a glance of the river, as well as of the gardens and orchards on the opposite side.

At Dublin, his attention was attracted by the regularity of the streets, the elegance of the houses and furniture, and particularly by the singular union of utility and ornament in our grates, or, as he terms them, the ‘ steel and brass machines for holding fire.’ The shops of the jewellers and haberdashers, and the splendid appearance, at night, of long ranges of lighted lamps, formed in his eyes new and captivating objects. The beauty of the Phoenix-park, and the delightful prospect in Dublin-bay, afforded him much gratification, and made him exclaim that he no longer wondered that our countrymen in India should consider that region merely as a temporary sojourn. — In delineations of national character, we have seldom met with a more downright or explicit writer than Abu Taleb. Though very far from giving the Irish the praise of prudence and judgment, he pays a merited compliment to their attention to strangers ; and he remarks that they understood his signs and broken English much better than their fellow-subjects on this side of the Channel ;

'The Irish, by reason of their liberality and prodigality, seldom have it in their power to assist their friends in pecuniary matters: they are generally in straitened circumstances themselves, and therefore cannot, or do not aim at the comforts and elegance of the English: neither do they take pains to acquire riches and honours like the Scotch, by limiting their expences when in the receipt of good incomes, and paying attention to the Great. In consequence of this want of prudence, they seldom attain to high dignities, and but few of them, comparatively, make much progress in science. Their great national defect, however, is excess in drinking. The rich expend a vast deal in wine; and the common people consume immense quantities of a fiery spirit, called *whisky*.'—

'The Irish *women* have not such elegance of manners, nor the handsome eyes and hair of the English; neither are they as tall nor so good figures as the Scotch; but they have much finer complexions, are warm in their affections, lively, and agreeable.

'For some time after my arrival in Dublin, I was greatly incommoded by the common people crowding round me, whenever I went out. They were all very curious to see me, but had no intention of offending me. Some said I must be the Russian General, who had been for some time expected; others affirmed I was either a German or Spanish nobleman; but the greater part agreed that I was a Persian *Prince*. One day, a great crowd having assembled about me, a shop-keeper advised me to walk into his house, and to sit down till they should disperse. I accepted his kind invitation, and went into the shop, where I amused myself by looking at some penknives, scissors, &c. The people however thronged so about his windows, that several of the panes were broken; and the crowd being very great, it was in vain to ask who had done it.

'About a fortnight after my arrival, there fell a very heavy shower of snow. As I had never before seen any thing of the kind, I was much delighted by it. The roofs of the houses and tops of the walls were soon covered with it, and in two or three days the fields and mountains became a white surface, as far as the eye could reach. During the time it continued to snow, the cold was not very great; but when it ceased, notwithstanding I had all my doors and windows shut, and had three blankets on my bed, I felt the frost pierce through me like an arrow. The fire had scarce any effect on me; for while I warmed one side, I was frozen on the other; and I frequently burned my fingers before I was aware of the heat. At length I discovered, that the best remedy was walking; and during the continuation of the frost, I walked every day seven or eight miles. I was apprehensive that my health would have suffered from the severity of the climate; but, on the contrary, I had a keen appetite, and found myself every day get stronger and more active.

'I recollect that in India, when I only wore a single vest of Dacca muslin, if I walked a mile, I was completely tired; but here, when my clothes would have been a heavy load for an ass, I could have run for miles without feeling the smallest fatigue.'

After having remained nearly two months in Dublin, the Persian traveller proceeded, by Holyhead and Chester, to London.

London. Here he was greatly puzzled to find suitable lodgings, a hot and a cold bath being primary requisites in his consideration, Margaret Street, Upper Berkley Street, Rathbone Place, and Ib-botson's hotel, were successively his places of abode; the last of which proved very convenient, but was unluckily beyond the reach of his finances. He was in the habit of visiting all places of public amusement, and found himself so exhilarated by the coolness of the climate and the attention of his friends, that he 'followed the advice of the divine Hafiz, and freely gave himself up to love and gaiety.' He made frequent excursions to the country, and visited Windsor, Oxford, and Blenheim; at which last, the extent and beauty of the grounds struck him so forcibly, as for a time to 'efface all other objects from his recollection.' London, however, was the chief scene of his residence, and the field of his observations. He attended clubs, balls, and even masquerades.

'I one day received an *invitation card* from a lady, on which was written, only, "Mrs. — at home on ——— evening." At first, I thought it meant an assignation; but, on consulting one of my friends, I was informed that the lady gave a *Route* that night; and that a route meant an assemblage of people, without any particular object; that the mistress of the house had seldom time to say more to any of her guests, than to inquire after their health: but that the servants supplied them with tea, coffee, ice, &c.; after which they had liberty to depart, and make room for others. I frequently afterwards attended these routes, to some of which, three or four hundred persons came, during the course of the night.'

He was greatly pleased with the goodness of our roads and stage-coaches, but found very different feelings excited by the wonderful prices of our provisions. 'In England,' he says, 'a good appetite is a serious evil to a poor man.' With all his susceptibility of female charms, Abu Taleb approves of keeping the ladies under 'salutary restraints,' and even seems satisfied with that ungracious part of our statute-book which permits a 'man to beat his wife with a stick, provided he does not endanger the breaking of a limb.' He was much surprized at the freedom of the lower orders towards their superiors; and at the comfortable condition of the servants, who, he says, (p. 264.) 'sleep, not on the floor but on raised beds, and are as well clothed as their masters.' Adverting to the numerous servants who accompany a gentleman out of doors in India, he adds, 'I can scarcely describe the pleasure I felt, upon my first arrival in Europe, in being able to walk out unattended, to make my own bargains in the shops, and to talk to whom I pleased; so different from our customs.'

The traveller next comes to the important point of our national character, and gives us fresh proofs of his rigid impartiality.

ciality. Beginning with the lower orders, he laments their unlucky propensity to appropriate to themselves the property of others, in consequence of which he found that 'we were obliged to keep our doors shut, and not to permit an unknown person to enter them.' His next objection regards our national pride. 'Elated,' he says, 'with a long continuance of power and good fortune, we entertain no apprehension of adversity.' A third charge, more serious still, applies to our deficiency in religious faith, and an inclination among many to philosophy, or free-thinking. In addition to these imputations, he accuses us of a want of courtesy to our inferiors, as well as of an unnecessary and troublesome luxury in our mode of living. The Arabs and Tartars, he remarks, (Vol. ii. p. 36.) made their conquests, neither by dint of numbers nor by superiority of armour, but by the paucity of their wants. An 'English gentleman living at the court end of the town, when reproached with waste of time, will reply, "How is it to be avoided?" I answer, Curtail the number of your garments; render your dress simple; wear your beards; and give up less of your time to eating, drinking, and sleeping.'—He is by no means pleased that we should not be more ready to acknowledge our national defects, and he dislikes all palliatives; such as that "no nation was ever exempt from vices," or "So long as we are not worse than our neighbours, there is no danger," &c. This reasoning, he adds, is false: for fire, whether in summer or winter, is still inflammable; and the smothered flame will break out, in the sequel, with double violence. He is particularly severe on the unfortunate authors who run, he says, to the Press as soon as they have acquired a smattering of a subject:

'The portion of science and truth contained in many of these books is very small; besides it is more difficult to eradicate an erroneous opinion once contracted than to implant correct ideas in a mind uncultivated. Far be it from me to depreciate the angelic character of Sir William Jones; but his Persian grammar, having been written when he was a very young man, is, in many places, very defective; and it is much to be regretted that his public avocations, and other studies, did not permit him to revise it, after he had been some years in India.'

On turning to the reverse of the picture, Abu Taleb is by no means backward in giving us credit for a number of good qualities. Our high sense of honour, our readiness to hazard life in order to wipe off slander, our regard to principle in the pursuit of ambition, our charity to the lower orders, and our preference in many respects of things useful to things brilliant, are all points new to this Asiatic observer, and intitling us, in his opinion, to much praise. Yet, after this commendatory description,

scription, he falls into bad humour at several of our customs. The surprising number of our turnpikes, and still more the endless demands on the pocket of a stranger who visits our cathedrals, or 'tombs of the kings,' are by no means to his taste. A more serious objection regards the use of feather-beds; 'all my other Indian customs (he says) I laid aside without difficulty, but sleeping in the English mode cost me much trouble. In the depth of winter, the softness of a feather-bed is bearable; but as the weather becomes warm, it is productive of great relaxation.'

It is some satisfaction for these serious rebukes, that the manners of the French attracted a still larger share of the author's disapprobation. After having resided between two and three years in London, he bade adieu to that 'beloved city,' and passed over, in 1802, into France. Here the clumsiness of the stage-coaches reminded him of a Hindoostany carriage drawn by oxen; and the cows and other animals were thin and poor, appearing like those of the east, although the soil and climate were evidently better than in England. The coarse looks of the country-women, and the filth of the inns as well as of the Parisian coffee-houses, formed additional objects of unpleasant contrast to the scene which he had just left. It was in vain that he sought in Paris a clean and retired lodging; he could obtain no reception but in buildings of many stories in height, and containing perhaps fifty persons in their various apartments. The lofty grandeur, however, of these stone-edifices on the outside, formed some kind of counterpoise to the want of comfort within: while the number of hot and cold baths, and particularly the convenience of those which are constructed on boats-moored in the river, was a source of high gratification; and the impression produced by the magnificent pictures in the Louvre was such as to make him think that the sights in Dublin and London were little better than play-things. In treating of the French character, he makes a very fair statement of both sides of the question:

'The public library of Paris contains nearly a million of books, in various languages, and upon all subjects. Its establishment is the most liberal I have any where met with, as the people are permitted to enter it gratis, and have not only permission to read there the whole day, but to make extracts, or even to copy any book in the collection.' —

'Whilst travelling, or when dining at French ordinaries, I was frequently surprized to see with what good-humour the gentlemen put up with bad food, and worse wine; and whenever I complained, they took great pains to persuade me the things were not so bad, or that the master of the house was not in fault. The French appear
always

always happy, and do not vex themselves with business ; for immediately after dinner, they walk out, and amuse themselves, till midnight, in visiting the gardens, and other places of recreation. —

‘ In some instances, I think the French have too much apathy and want of exertion, and that the servants take advantage of the forbearance of the better classes. In a London coffee-house, if a gentleman calls for *breakfast*, the waiter will at once bring him all the requisites on a tray, and afterwards eggs or fruit, if called for. This he does to avoid running backward and forward, to which the English have a great objection. But in Paris, although the waiter perfectly knows by experience what articles are requisite, he will first bring the coffee, then the sugar, a third time the milk, and, before you can possibly breakfast, he must have made half a dozen trips to the bar.’ —

‘ On beholding these inert qualities in the French, I was convinced that, notwithstanding their numbers, skill, and bravery, *they will never gain the superiority over the English* ; who, although inferior in strength of armies, are persevering, and indefatigable in resources and contrivances. It really astonishes me, how the French, being so deficient in energy and perseverance, should have acquired so much fame and power.

‘ The French women are tall, and more corpulent than the English, but bear no comparison with respect to beauty. They want the simplicity, modesty, and graceful motions of the English damsels. — They were also painted to an excessive degree, were very forward, and great talkers. The waists of their gowns were so short and full bodied, that the women appeared hump-backed ; whilst the drapery in front was so scanty as barely to conceal half their bosoms. Although I am by nature amorous, and easily affected at the sight of beauty, and visited every public place in Paris, I never met with a French woman who interested me.’

From Paris, Abu Taleb proceeded southward by way of Lyons, Avignon, and Marseilles ; a journey during which he had ample reason to regret the convenience of English travelling. At Marseilles, he embarked for Genoa, and found the aspect of that city and its bay one of the most delightful which he had yet seen. The custom in Italy, of allowing the ladies to be attended by cicerbeos, appeared not a little extraordinary to this jealous Orientalist. He was in hopes of obtaining a sight of Florence, Rome, and Naples, but was deterred from undertaking the journey by the report of an epidemic fever which raged with great violence in the interior of Italy. At Leghorn, the closeness of the town, and the apparent selfishness of many of the inhabitants, rendered his stay uncomfortable ; so that his Italian tour, limited as was its extent, afforded him very little satisfaction, otherwise than in gratifying his taste for music :

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‘The inhabitants of Genoa are all proficient in the science of music, and possess a greater variety of instruments than I have seen elsewhere. One night I was reposing on my bed, when I was roused by the most charming melody, in the street, I had ever heard. I started up, and involuntarily ran down stairs to the street door, but found it was locked, and the key taken away; I therefore hastened again to my room, and felt every inclination to throw myself out of the window; when, fortunately, the musicians stopped, and my senses returned.

‘I had frequently been informed, in London, that the Italians excelled all the world in their skill in music; and I here acknowledge, that the Indian, Persian, and Western Europe music, bears the same comparison to the Italian that a mill does to a fine-tuned organ.’

From Leghorn, he proceeded to Malta, where he was very agreeably surprized to find the language contain a great mixture of Arabic. Though the Maltese is chiefly compounded of Greek, Italian, and French, the pronunciation approaches very much to the Arabic, the letters S, Z, and T, being the same in both languages. — His next voyage was to Constantinople, in the course of which he had a distant prospect of many classic scenes: but with these he was not strongly impressed, his knowledge of history being limited to the records of modern Persia and India. Athens he briefly describes as the ‘birth-place of Plato, of Diogenes the cynic, and of several other celebrated philosophers.’ Constantinople, as usual, was delightful at a distance, and very much otherwise on close inspection. He disliked the perpetual smoking of the Turks, the dirt of their inns, and their idle conversations carried on in their coffee-houses in a loud tone of voice. He remarked that, though the atmosphere of this metropolis is cold during a considerable part of the year, the Turks have no idea whatever of the benefit of taking exercise. A Pasha enters his hall of audience, in the morning, by a small door communicating with his Harem, remains there during the day, and retires at night by the same door, without even looking into his garden. The load of clothes, which this want of exercise makes it necessary to wear, appeared to Abu Taleb still more unfavourable to health than the down-beds of our own country. — He was introduced to the Turkish ministers, several of whom, particularly Ahmed Effendi, spoke Persian with great fluency. — From the Turkish capital, he set out on his return by way of the interior of Asia, accompanied by a Mehmander, or conductor appointed by government: but the journey, in itself unavoidably uncomfortable, was rendered doubly disagreeable by the character of his guide. From Constantinople to Bagdad is a distance of nearly 1900 English miles, which were travelled over by him in somewhat

somewhat less than two months. At Bagdad, as at Bassora, he underwent, partly from his own irritability and partly from other causes, a repetition of mortifications; all of which, however, were forgotten in the hospitable attentions of Governor Duncan at Bombay. Here a passage was procured for him on board a frigate going round to Calcutta, where he landed in August 1803, after an absence of more than four years.

The work is concluded by an Appendix, containing a curious tract on the treatment of women in Asia; a subject which was suggested to Abu Taleb by the notion prevalent in Europe that the fair sex in the East live in a state of thralldom. The observations are curious, chiefly as communicating the reasons which strike the imagination of an Orientalist as productive of differences in national habits. The Asiatic women appear to him to have the greater liberty of the two; possessing, he says, (p. 412.) more authority over the property of their husbands, and over their servants, as well as over the education, the religion, and the marriage of their children. At the same time, the Asiatic ladies have no trouble in entertaining the guests, or attending to the business of the husband. If a divorce happens to take place in India, a mother does not, as in Europe, relinquish all her children to her husband, but carries away her daughters and her property; a step, indeed, which she will have little hesitation in taking on the occurrence of a quarrel of less consequence than those which lead to a permanent separation. Polygamy does not exist in India, in the manner commonly imagined; the first wife being the only one who is considered as on a footing of equality with the husband. Women submitting to become the wives of a married man are not admitted into the society of ladies, but have either a separate dwelling or occupy a subordinate station in the house of the equal wife. The truth indeed is that polygamy is very rare, and generally carries its own cure along with it; 'for from what I know,' says Abu Taleb, 'it is easier to live with two tigresses than with two wives.' This emphatic assertion he confirms, (p. 416.) by adducing various points in which an Indian lady makes no scruple of teasing her husband; such as 'keeping dinner waiting for her coming to table; visiting her own friends frequently, and remaining day after day under their roof, though repeatedly entreated by her husband to return;' all of which, it seems, are put in practice for the sake of keeping a hold on the husband's affection. Another assertion of Abu Taleb, and one which, we confess, rather startled us, is (p. 416.) that the 'Asiatics appear by their manners to place a greater reliance on a wife's discretion than the Europeans.' 'Here,' he says, 'custom prevents

prevents a married lady from going abroad without the company of a friend, and to sleep from home would be at variance with all rule; — whereas in the East a wife will go unattended to the house of a lady of her acquaintance, though their husbands should be strangers, and will remain there a week without its being thought any thing unusual.' Next, as to the custom in Asia, of ladies not entering into the society of gentlemen, and not even seeing them, the motive, says Abu Taleb, is choice, not compulsion; because, in the East, the house-doors being kept open all the day, the females could not, without such a precaution, be free from incessant interruption, or find leisure for domestic employments. In Europe, were commodities as cheap and servants as numerous as in India, 'we might (he observes,) see a separate house, table, and equipage, for the wife.' Finally, he thinks, it would be the practice to keep females out of sight in Europe as much as it is in India, did not the coldness of the climate require exercise in the open air; "while the necessity of participating in the active duties of life calls for a degree of experience on the part of a woman, which retired habits would not afford. In India, on the other hand, the duty of a wife is limited to the simple charge of taking care of her husband's property, and of bringing up her children.

This singular and amusing production was reduced into its present shape by the author, after his return to Calcutta in 1803, from a journal commenced at the outset of his travels, and regularly continued. The book being published in MS., according to the Persian method, a copy came, in 1806, into the possession of a British officer, who procured a correct transcript of it at Allahabad; and this transcript, being brought over to England, was put into the hands of Mr. Stewart, who declares that he has translated it as literally as the different idioms of the two languages would permit. With all his sollicitude, however, to adhere to the plan of the original, he found it necessary to retrench certain poetical effusions in which the author was very fond of indulging; as well as long lists of his friends at the principal places which he visited. A dissertation on anatomy, and a formidably long description of a hot-house, were likewise viewed by Mr. Stewart in the light of excrescences: but these retrenchments, with a partial transposition of the chapters for the sake of connection, form the only deviations from the original. — The style of the translation is easy and perspicuous; and, whether the merit be due to the Persian or the Englishman, a great variety of observations will be found compressed in a smaller compass than is usual in books of travels.

By a short note appended to the second volume, we are concerned to learn that Abu Taleb did not long survive his re-

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turn to India. He was appointed a district-collector in Bundelcund, and died in that situation in 1806. His property having been much reduced by his various disappointments, the East-India Company settled a pension on his wife and family.

Those passages of the narrative, on which we have forbore to dwell, relate chiefly to occurrences in European politics, and to observations on matters of government; because, though Abu Taleb's information, considering his previous habits, is by no means despicable, we must be prepared for less accuracy on such topics than on those which fall under ocular observation. He is accordingly somewhat incorrect in his report (Vol. ii. p. 100.) of the circumstances of Bonaparte's usurpation in 1799; as well as of the resignation in 1801 (Vol. i. p. 274.) of Mr. Pitt and the other *viziers*. He mistakes likewise (Vol. i. p. 89.) the Western Islands for the West-Indies; and in treating (Vol. ii. p. 205.) of antient history, he finds himself so much out of his latitude as to call Troy the residence of a 'celebrated philosopher and poet, named Homer.' Respecting another topic, we mean the abuses consequent on the introduction of British law into India, his opinion and the arguments urged in its support (Vol. ii. p. 9.) deserve to be read with attention. On arriving in London, he entertained a project of teaching Persian, under the sanction of Government and the India-Company: but the men in office delayed to give an affirmative answer until a considerable time had elapsed, and his resolution was taken to return home. We question, however, whether he would have been found to have possessed sufficient temper and steadiness for the permanent discharge of such a task.

ART. XI. On National Government. By George Ensor, Esq. Author of "The Independent Man," and "Principles of Morality." First Part. 2 Vols. 8vo. 21s. Boards. Johnson and Co.

WHEN we say that these volumes are written completely in the spirit and manner of the author's former works, our readers will at once know what general character to assign to them; and we need scarcely observe that the varied reading, the bold expressions, and the marked inequalities, which were displayed in those productions, are not less apparent in the present. It is to be regretted that the writer does not choose to take more pains in methodizing and digesting the stores which his industry collects; that he cannot profess and publish his own sentiments with somewhat more of deference towards those who differ from him; that he cannot be contented to adopt a style less dictatorial; and that he conducts himself as if he thought that it indicates superior talents, and an

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ardent love of truth, to treat with contempt the most received opinions and the most respectable authors, if they accord not with his views and conceptions.

The work may be stated to consist of a series of disquisitions on a variety of important topics relative to the theory and practice of government. Under too many of the heads into which the whole is divided, will be found little besides crude thoughts and unconnected facts, confusedly jumbled together: but, by the side of these farragos, the reader will occasionally meet with discussions which are lively, striking, and impressive. Some of the subjects so treated are of high present interest; and it is therefore to be greatly wished that the author had not precluded every hope of their producing any good effect, by the obnoxious matter with which they are accompanied, and the offensive manner in which he seems so much to delight. We should pronounce this to be a learned, although not a chaste or judicious performance, did we not include in our notions of learning not merely a store of matter, but also just ideas, and a proper arrangement and application of the whole. In our conception, no two things are more distinct than a performance abounding with quotations, and a learned treatise; a work exhibiting unconnected striking thoughts, and an original production. When the two latter descriptions meet, they insure immortality: but how rare is the union! The hand of nature, a finished education, unremitting industry, a strong passion for a particular pursuit, and a love of true glory, must combine together to form the mind which is capable of thus excelling.

The public will learn, from a paragraph in the 'Preliminary Discourse,' that more benefits are in reserve for them, of which they were not aware:

'In this performance I mean to include whatever eminently promotes, internally or externally, the strength, the happiness, and the prosperity of nations. I divide the subject into three parts: the whole is already written; yet, as each part is in a great measure complete in itself, and as the work, from the variety and importance of its objects, is necessarily extensive, I find, that it will be much more convenient to myself, and I hope it will not be much less convenient to the reader, to publish the three parts at three several times. What may be called the Constitutional Part I now deliver to the public; the second and third will soon follow, if some unexpected accident should not obstruct my design.'

'The whole is already written:' — the greater is the misfortune. If the author would accept our advice, he would give the subject another and a more mature consideration, and write over again all that is not already unfortunately sent forth to the public. He would then, we believe, find in the result that

he had made a great saving in respect of paper and letter-press, and, if he have any feeling towards others, that he had trespassed less on the precious time of his readers.

The laboured apology, which Mr. Ensor makes in his Preliminary Discourse, for espousing the cause of reform, and for employing his labours to recommend and promote it, might we think have been spared. The empire contains a sufficient number of persons who admit that the British constitution, excellent as it is on the whole, is not free from original defects; and that it has suffered from time and the course of events, as well as from insidious attacks. Few persons, who are qualified to speak on this subject, will assert that all is right in this respect. Who will deny that the financial burthens of the empire are grown excessive? Who does not lament that they are become such, that it requires the utmost commercial prosperity to enable the nation to bear them, and that we are thus rendered miserably dependent on foreign states? In our opinion, no field more requires investigation; and would to God that we could see it entered by more labourers equal to the undertaking, who would pursue it with due diligence, and in a becoming manner. Persons, however, to whom the study of our laws has scarcely been even a pastime, who cavil at fundamental points in the frame of our government, and who can perceive no excellence in it, are not the sort of labourers that we should willingly employ. Great as we admit the present defects of our constitution to be, we do not desire to have it touched except by those to whom it is still an object of love and veneration. If we are intitled to expect great things from temperate and judicious reform, let us not forget that still more may be lost if the venerable fabric should be overturned.

Mr. Ensor's Preliminary Discourse is a fair specimen of the work itself. It is enriched by a great variety of quotations, and, in the course of it, many important topics are well elucidated: but scarcely is a single subject thoroughly discussed, or any useful conclusion fully established. It resembles a collection of hints intended to be made the bases of farther meditation. The wary and cautious reformer, who, in planning a constitution for a people, pays great attention to the state of that people, to their degree of knowledge and civilization, and to their habits and situation, does not suit the taste of this author; to whom gradual amelioration appears to be base temporizing. No consideration, we imagine, would induce him to relax from his theoretical principles; he professes, indeed, to be satisfied with reform: but his doctrines and his language give impulses to the mind which, we apprehend, must carry it much beyond that point.

In the commencement of his investigation, Mr. E. states the usual divisions of political constitutions, treats of each of them separately, and then of the several combinations into which they are susceptible of being united. It is not a little curious that none of the simple forms of government, nor any of the combinations of them, meet his approbation; yet he would not have nations be without governments; — and he even condescends to give a sketch of a form of government, such as in his opinion would be exempt from the defects which he finds to prevail in abundance in all existing systems, and against which he so freely and constantly inveighs. We shall shortly give some account of it.

The subject of *Monarchy* appears to us to be treated with very great unfairness. The author does not take into his consideration how far institutions, usages, and laws, may qualify even an arbitrary monarchy; nor does he notice the advantages which arise from the stability of the executive power under this regimen. He deals largely in such declamation on this subject as we recollect was some years ago to be found in the French publications of the day: yet in this chapter the reader will observe several of the extravagant positions of Mr. Burke satisfactorily confuted.

With regard to *Aristocracy*, the writer is more sober; and under that head he introduces some just criticism, which is too frequently overlooked when this topic is under consideration:

‘*Monarchy having been considered, we come to Aristocracy. This form of government is frequently praised by Aristotle, and by other ancient writers; as Plutarch, who says, “Democracy is better than tyranny, aristocracy is the best.” But it is of material importance to observe, that the term aristocracy had in those remote times a very different meaning from that which it now bears: as is obvious from Aristotle, when he explains the reason of his preference. Aristocracy, he says, depends on virtue; which is precisely Montesquieu’s principle of a republic. Aristotle adds, that it is that sort of government, in which education and institutions direct; that in his estimation it resembles a commonwealth; and, comparing it with oligarchy, he says, in an aristocracy the well instructed direct the state, in an oligarchy the rich.*’

It might occasion some surprize if *Democracy* were as little adapted to the taste of Mr. Ensor as either of the other simple forms: but that is not exactly the case: he does indeed tell us that he *condemns* this form, and adduces in support of his opinion the following apposite quotations from Aristotle:

‘Some who have been the most decided advocates for man’s natural equality, as Aristotle for instance, have also been the most decided enemies to democracy according to my definition of it. The philosopher

philosopher says, that this government arises when the free, because they are equal in some things, believe themselves equal in all; to which cause he attributes great dissensions in the state. All men have equal rights, but not to equal things; or, as Aristotle says in another part of his Republic, though a man has as good a right to his mina as another who contributed one hundred has to his hundred minæ, it is not just, that he who brought a mina should have an equal share with him who contributed a hundred.'

He then proceeds :

' All men are equally free by nature, and should, generally speaking, remain so in society. But a poor man has not the same pretensions to the national exchequer as the rich, nor has an ignorant simple man the same pretensions justly to sway the counsels of the nation as an experienced sage, nor a dastard in the day of battle to lead the forces of the state as a chief of approved valour and conduct. Some, says Aristotle justly, though Hobbes gibingly reprehends his remark, should direct, while others from their feeble powers and limited attainments should act subordinately to them. But beside the distance between the incompetent and the capable, there are also degrees of intelligence and capacity among the learned and the enlightened. It is therefore not natural, it is indeed most unnatural, that in situations which require sagacity and talents, men of unequal and inferior abilities should be invested with equal responsibility and power : this would be, as Isocrates says, to act most unequally, because most unjustly. There is also another observation of the same orator to the same purpose. Equality does not consist in confounding the good and bad, but in distributing to each individual his desert. Hence I conclude, that equality in a political and rational view is to grant to superior men an opportunity to distinguish their superior qualities in serving their fellow-citizens. This is not consonant to democracy, and of course I unequivocally condemn it as unsuitable to the purposes of a government, which aspires at perfection.'

Having thus expressed himself, however, concerning democracy, he combats the objections usually alleged against it, and apologizes for its defects :

' The Athenians have been also reprobated for many unjust convictions of celebrated men. I admit, that many of them were unjust. But how does this affect the character of the people? It proves that they were deceived, not that they were unjust or invidious. Those whom they condemned they believed guilty, and this was frequently proved by their annulling their own sentence, when they discovered their error. Witness the consequence of that event, when they sentenced to death eight naval commanders, whom they had sent against the Lacedæmonians. Immediately after their condemnation they are better informed — they lament their own precipitancy, and they decree, that the false accusers should be arraigned for calumny in having deceived the people. Their contrition was their own, their errors the crimes of those who deceived them.'

In the history of democratic extravagancies, nothing occurs more disgusting and painful than this representation. If we may judge from our own feelings, proceedings that less admit of palliation, or that create a greater disgust towards the authority whence they emanated, cannot be mentioned.

It is justly observed by the author that,

‘As the Athenian state always leaned in it’s excesses to a democracy, the Roman in it’s excesses inclined to a despotism. The Athenians by their judgment of ostracism, rather than expose their freedom to the possibility of danger, dismissed their most popular citizens; while the Romans, by appointing the most celebrated of their people to the dictatorship, occasionally authorized by law that domination as a refuge, which the Athenians regarded as a catastrophe to be prevented by suspecting danger even from virtue itself.’

Mr. Ensor thus recapitulates, in his manner, the labours to which we have been adverting :

‘My object is now I think clearly ascertained, so far at least, that I would not establish a monarchy, which sacrifices many to one, or an aristocracy, which increases the grievance by the increased number of rulers, or a democracy, which changes a people into a multitude, or any of them combined or confounded together, for the government of nations. It is my object to frame a commonwealth, founded on unlimited liberty and universal subordination. In such a state, though uniformity would not always be preserved, revolutions and insurrections could not harass mankind, and distract the land. The rivers which intersect it’s territory would not occasionally sweep away their banks, and pursue untried courses. Neither would storms and tempests, which break up the channels of the deep, and sink the earth in the abyss, destroy it’s seaports and inundate it’s fields; but tides and currents moved by known laws at varying intervals with endless vicissitude would preserve the whole in purity and stability for ever.’

When the subject is so grave, when expectations have been raised so high, and when the reader has been kept so long in suspense, less of metaphor would have been desirable: but, in that case, the work would have been less consistent with itself. At length, we conceive, we approach the author’s Perfect Commonwealth; for can we expect any thing short of this from such an Aristarchus in constitutions, such an arch censor of all past and existing forms of governments? He denominates it himself a *commonwealth founded on unlimited liberty, and universal subordination*. It is not a monarchy, nor an aristocracy, nor a democracy, nor any combination of them. The reader, however, must not yet reckon on having his curiosity satisfied, but must wade through many tedious pages, and peruse much common-place matter, touching *climate, situation of a people, soil, position, and physical strength of nations, confederacies,*

confederacies, the extent of states, and a census, before the promised land is presented to his longing view. Many of the observations which are offered in this miscellany are just, but they have not the merit of novelty to recommend them, and have been better treated before: we shall therefore indulge the reader's impatience, and proceed to introduce him to the commonwealth of Mr. Ensor.

Before we are permitted to see the political paradise, we are delayed to be told;

'The sort of government, which I admire, is that praised by Thucydides, "in which the commons, the middle order, and the most expert, unite in administering the affairs of the commonwealth." It is the same which Cicero adorns with his eloquence, "in which the high, and low, and intermediate orders consent, like a harmony produced from various sounds." In the same spirit Aristotle prefers a constitution, which embraces the various orders of citizens. This philosopher frequently declares the same opinion, adding, that the cause of seditions and revolutions proceeds from the want of this happy composition, and that the more perfectly the orders of society are combined in directing the administration, the state is better established. To strengthen his observation he exemplifies Lacedæmon. To the same purpose Plato speaks: "Neither the commonwealth which approaches too near monarchy, nor that which affects a boisterous freedom, is to be preferred; but that which is equally removed from anarchy and despotism."'

Nothing of this sort finds its proper application in the British constitution; in which Mr. E.'s superior understanding can find only matter for censure and ridicule. We are told that, of all the forms of government which the wisdom of man has been hitherto able to frame, the famous Spartan commonwealth was the most perfect; and that it is the model which the author has had in view while forming his regimen. Scarcely is a bare outline shewn to us of the grand plan, before the author again plunges into a tedious inquiry respecting the origin of the Spartan government, and into a detail of its minute parts. It is remarked that

'The senate consisted of twenty-eight. This, Plutarch says, was the number of the council, which assisted Lycurgus in methodizing his laws. These, as well as the ephori, were elected by the people: it seems, however, that the senators were to be sixty years old, while the ephori had no limitation of age, and were chosen in consequence of their merit from all the people.

'This presents a very different outline from the British monarchy. Here is no senate appointed by the king, no men inheriting the right of their fathers to legislate for the nation. Here is no king uncontrolled by law, and superior to justice. The king was amenable to judgment; and miraculous to tell, no *imperium in imperio* haunted the people's dreams, nor was the state dissolved when a bad king

was arraigned for misconduct. The king did not form one branch of the legislature, he had at most a double vote in the senate: he had in short, as Pythagoras says, the most confined power of all kings whatever. If the Spartan kings were bad, they were tried and punished. Yet martyrdom did not sanctify the royal traitor's execution; nor was posterity filled with pious horror and consternation, because a head, which had disgraced a diadem, was severed from the body by the same axe, which at the instigation of that traitor's royal son afterward murdered Russel and Sydney. Their kings were punished; yet, can our prejudices believe it? the state continued to exist, nor did even convulsions or disturbance distract the people. —

‘It is therefore very possible, that the king may be amenable to justice, yet the royal power continue: it is very possible, that the royal power may be extremely limited, yet remain secure. —

‘Such was the mixed but liberal nature of the Spartan constitution. The king was the chief magistrate, who voted with the senators, and executed the decree of the majority. The senators were venerable for their years, they were elected by the people, and their office continued for life. The ephori were of mature age, their office was annual, and they also were elected by the people. Thus the power of the state, though variously modified, was wholly popular, beginning, ending, continuing, and re-appearing with the people. This preserved the greatest equality among the people; even, says Thucydides, between the rich and poor. To this popularity of it's nature is to be ascribed it's strength and permanency. “The people,” says Aristotle, “participated in the great imperial concerns of the state, and this accounts for it's tranquillity and duration.”

‘I have considered the Spartan state at this length, because I conceive, that the appointment and office of it's constituted authorities give a fair outline of what ought to be the constitution of a state, that endeavoured to unite security with freedom. It consisted of assemblies of the people, and ephori, who were presidents of those assemblies, and who represented them when they were dissolved; of a senate; and of a chief magistrate. This bears the character of wisdom and simplicity, and seems to be dictated not only by common sense, but by the nature of society.’

Although the Spartan system is here held up as the model which is to be consulted in forming the new constitution of British government, we are not to conclude that all which is to be found in that favourite pattern is to be copied in the new regimen. Mr. E. makes no appropriation of the black broth, of the iron money, of the discouragement of science, letters, and commerce, nor of the double royalty, nor yet of the Helots and the indecent dances. Indeed, he informs us that these are parts of this antient system which do not meet his approbation. The modern school of abstract coin would, we apprehend, as much object to iron as to gold or silver. It

is with paper only that they are contented.—So much had the author indulged in invectives against monarchy, that we had concluded that this form of government could not in any shape enter into a constitution which enjoyed the signal distinction of having his approbation; and we leave our readers to guess how great was our astonishment, when we found him so far from averse to kings that *one* will not satisfy him, and he must have *two*: but we must here correct ourselves; since in the course of these lucubrations he expresses doubts respecting the two-fold kingship, and seems inclined to view it rather as a defect than an excellence. Perhaps we should not readily adopt his opinion on this point, for there was a peculiar convenience in having such an arrangement at Sparta, since, as Mr. Ensor has remarked, a king might be brought to trial and condemned in that commonwealth; a circumstance which he highly extols. In such a state of things, was it not almost a matter of necessity that, while one king was on his trial, another should exist to carry on the functions of government?—We shall pursue no farther these vagaries. What can be said of the man who would pull down the entire fabric of the British constitution, in order to frame one on the model of the fantastic regimen of Sparta? Incredible as it may appear, he who can thus trifle with the public, and sport with his own reputation, is possessed of no inconsiderable share of industry, and endowed with faculties which might render him a valuable writer. Of this truth, we have evidence in many parts of these very volumes: but, before he can appear in that respectable character, we repeat that he must learn to think more highly of the public and more humbly of himself; to express in more measured terms his ideas of general opinion; and to set some value on the test of ages and the unanimous suffrages of the good and wise. In enjoining on him these restraints, we would not be understood in the least degree to check the spirit of inquiry, or in any manner to circumscribe its range. Let our institutions be fully open to it: lamentable would be our case if they were not: but inveterate abuses, long established errors, and vicious or decayed institutions, are only kept in countenance and prolonged by rash efforts, and crude and extravagant projects. A reformer, worthy of the name and of the functions, in our estimation ranks among the highest characters; and great and arduous do we consider his calling. He who takes on him this office should be impressed with its importance and its dignity, with the incessant exertions and the costly sacrifices which it requires; he should feel an ardent love and the utmost respect for that public in whose service he claims a station so distinguished; and

and he should be sensible that, without the requisite qualifications, he does injury to the cause which he means to serve.

Two other works by this author, on *National Education*, and on *The Defects of the English Laws*, are before us, and will demand our attention in succession.

ART. XII. *The Giaour*, a Fragment of a Turkish Tale. By Lord Byron. 8vo. pp. 41. 4s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1813.

GIAOUR means *Infidel* in Turkey. Our fair readers must be kind enough to pronounce it *Jour*, or *Gowr*, or *Yowr*, or in any other manner more agreeable to themselves which may at once keep it a monosyllable and permit it to rhyme with *lower*, *bower*, *power*, &c.

He from whom the present poem derives its title was a Venetian, who, sojourning on the other side of the Adriatic, seduced the affections of Leila, the dark-eyed favourite of Hassan. Detected by her impetuous lord, she was condemned to die the death often inflicted by vindictive jealousy in the East; viz. to be fastened in a sack, and plunged into the unfathomable ocean. A short time afterward, in the course of a journey undertaken for the purpose of supplying the place of Leila, Hassan was attacked by her desperate and heart-broken lover, and slain in a short but bloody conflict. The conclusion exhibits the state of the Christian's mind, when he subsequently buried within the walls of a monastery his recollections, his remorse, and his despair:

‘He pass’d — nor of his name and race
Hath left a token or a trace,
Save what the father must not say
Who shriv’d him on his dying day;
This broken tale was all we knew
Of her he lov’d or him he slew.’

It is not without considerable hesitation that we express our belief that we have given a correct sketch of this little romance; and, to say the truth, we are as much indebted for our knowledge to an explanatory note at the end of the volume, as to the poetical narrative. This narrative is also in *character*, proceeding from some person who has had opportunities of seeing what he describes: but as to what his connection is with the *dramatis persone*, or the events, most readers will probably remain as ignorant as ourselves. He speaks, indeed, as an eye-witness of scenes the most remote and disunited from each other, both as to time and place; and in reality it is not one fragment, but many, with which we are here presented.

The

The readers of *Childe Harold* will not be disappointed in their expectation that these great and obvious faults of plot and arrangement must be amply compensated, as similar defects were in that poem, by beauties of the highest order; and those powers of lively painting, and that fine but melancholy strain of moral reflection, which may be said to have been there rather displayed than used by Lord Byron, are here employed for the nobler purpose of adding interest and probability to a deeply affecting story, related with rapidity and fervour. The picturesque *costume* and glowing scenery of the East are no longer drawn from the portfolio, like a series of pictures: but they fix in a local habitation, and stamp with the most striking characters, the drama which is actually performing on the stage before us.

We must notwithstanding take leave to begin our extracts with a simile, which may in our opinion stand the comparison with any that we remember, as well in justness of sentiment as in elegance and delicacy of expression.

‘ As rising on its purple wing
The insect-queen * of eastern spring,
O’er emerald meadows of Kashmeer
Invites the young pursuer near,
And leads him on from flower to flower
A weary chase and wasted hour,
Then leaves him, as it soars on high
With panting heart and tearful eye :
So Beauty lures the full-grown child
With hue as bright, and wing as wild ;
A chase of idle hopes and fears,
Begun in folly, closed in tears.
If won, to equal ills betrayed,
Woe waits the insect and the maid,
A life of pain, the loss of peace,
From infant’s play, and man’s caprice :
The lovely toy so fiercely sought
Has lost its charm by being caught,
For every touch that wooed its stay
Has brush’d its brightest hues away,
Till charm, and hue, and beauty gone,
’Tis left to fly or fall alone,
With wounded wing, or bleeding breast,
Ah ! where shall either victim rest ?
Can this with faded pinion soar
From rose to tulip as before ?
Or Beauty, blighted in an hour,
Find joy within her broken bower ?

* * The blue-winged butterfly of Kashmeer, the most rare and beautiful of the species.

No: gayer insects fluttering by
 Ne'er droop the wing o'er those that die,
 And lovelier things have mercy shewn
 To every failing but their own,
 And every woe a tear can claim
 Except an erring sister's shame.'

* * * * *

Our only objection to this beautiful metaphor (which applies also to that of a scorpion, immediately subjoined to it,) is the want of due connection with the rest of the poem. These fine verses are not adapted to those which precede and follow it, but are studiously insulated from them by asterisks; though the tone of reflection is such as to harmonize very happily with the subject. A little trouble would have interwoven both passages in the most natural and graceful manner; and we must strongly protest against this abuse of the convenient word *fragment*, as much too listless, and too lofty.

The description of Hassan, setting out on his expedition, is singularly spirited:

' Stern Hassan hath a journey ta'en
 With twenty vassals in his train,
 Each arm'd as best becomes a man
 With arquebuss and ataghan;
 The chief before, as deck'd for war,
 Bears in his belt the scimitar
 Stain'd with the best of Arnaut blood,
 When in the pass the rebels stood,
 And few return'd to tell the tale
 Of what befell in Parne's vale.
 The pistols which his girdle bore
 Were those that once a pasha wore,
 Which still, though gemm'd and boss'd with gold,
 Even robbers tremble to behold. —
 'Tis said he goes to woo a bride
 More true than her who left his side;
 The faithless slave that broke her bower,
 And, worse than faithless, for a Giaour! —

* * * * *

' The sun's last rays are on the hill,
 And sparkle in the fountain rill,
 Whose welcome waters cool and clear,
 Draw blessings from the mountaineer;
 Here may the loitering merchant Greek
 Find that repose 'twere vain to seek
 In cities lodg'd too near his lord,
 And trembling for his secret hoard —
 Here may he rest where none can see,
 In crowds a slave, in deserts free;

And

And with forbidden wine may stain
The bowl a Moslem must not drain. —

* * * * *

‘ The foremost Tartar’s in the gap,
Conspicuous by his yellow cap,
The rest in lengthened line the while
Wind slowly through the long defile ;
Above, the mountain rears a peak,
Where vultures whet the thirsty beak,
And their’s may be a feast to-night,
Shall tempt them down ere morrow’s light.
Beneath, a river’s wintry stream
Has shrunk before the summer beam,
And left a channel bleak and bare,
Save shrubs that spring to perish there.
Each side the midway path there lay
Small broken crags of granite gray,
By time or mountain lightning riven,
From summits clad in mists of heaven ;
For where is he that hath beheld
The peak of Liakura unveil’d ?

* * * * *

We omit the combat, and pass to the Mohammedan’s curse on
the murderer of Hassan :

‘ But thou, false Infidel ! shalt writhe
Beneath avenging Monkir’s scythe ;
And from its torment ’scape alone
To wander round lost Eblis’ throne ;
And fire unquench’d, unquenchable —
Around — within — thy heart shall dwell,
Nor ear can hear, nor tongue can tell
The tortures of that inward hell ! —
But first, on earth as Vampire sent,
Thy corse shall from its tomb be rent ;
Then ghastly haunt thy native place,
And suck the blood of all thy race,
There from thy daughter, sister, wife,
At midnight drain the stream of life ;
Yet loathe the banquet which perforce
Must feed thy livid living corse ;
Thy victims ere they yet expire
Shall know the dæmon for their sire,
As cursing thee, thou cursing them,
Thy flowers are wither’d on the stem.
But one that for thy crime must fall —
The youngest — most lov’d of all,
Shall bless thee with a *father’s* name —
That word shall wrap thy heart in flame !
Yet must thou end thy task, and mark
Her cheek’s last tinge, her eye’s last spark,

And

And the last glassy glance must view
 Which freezes o'er its lifeless blue ;
 These with unhallowed hand shalt tear
 The tresses of her yellow hair,
 Of which in life a lock when shorn,
 Affection's fondest pledge was worn ;
 But now is borne away by thee,
 Memorial of thine agony !
 Wet with thine own best blood shall drip,
 Thy gnashing tooth and haggard lip ;
 Then stalking to thy sullen grave —
 Go — and with Gouls and Afrits rave ;
 Till these in horror shrink away
 From spectre more accursed than they !'
 * * * * *

The description of the Giaour many years afterward, in the monastery, is very finely introduced in immediate succession to the passage just quoted, and forms a powerful contrast :

' " How name ye yon lone Caloyer ?
 His features I have scann'd before
 In mine own land — 'tis many a year,
 Since, dashing by the lonely shore,
 I saw him urge as fleet a steed
 As ever serv'd a horseman's need.
 But once I saw that face — but then
 It was so mark'd with inward pain
 I could not pass it by again ;
 It breathes the same dark spirit now,
 As death were stamped upon his brow.

' " 'Tis twice three years at summer tide
 Since first among our freres he came ;
 And here it soothes him to abide
 For some dark deed he will not name.
 But never at our vesper prayer,
 Nor e'er before confession chair
 Kneels he, nor recks he when arise
 Incense or anthem to the skies,
 But broods within his cell alone,
 His faith and race alike unknown.
 The sea from Paynim land he crost,
 And here ascended from the coast,
 Yet seems he not of Othman race,
 But only Christian in his face :
 I'd judge him some stray renegade,
 Repentant of the change he made,
 Save that he shuns our holy shrine,
 Nor tastes the sacred bread and wine.
 Great largess to these walls he brought,
 And thus our abbot's favour bought ;

But

But were I prior, not a day
Should brook such stranger's further stay,
Or peat within our penance cell
Should doom him there for aye to dwell.
Much in his visions mutters he
Of maiden 'whelmed beneath the sea ;
Of sabres clashing — foemen flying,
Wrongs aveng'd — and Moslem dying.
On cliff he hath been known to stand,
And rave as to some bloody hand
Fresh sever'd from its parent limb,
Invisible to all but him,
Which beckons onward to his grave,
And lures to leap into the wave.”

* * * * *

It were to be wished that the noble author had omitted all the notes, as we have done, except those which are absolutely necessary to render the text intelligible; since they are in a style of sprightliness which ill accords with the narrative, and which is not in itself peculiarly commendable. The dying speech of the Giaour is in parts extremely pathetic, but the rest has in it much more of Ovid than of nature. Antithesis and lines of eight syllables cannot easily be reconciled.

Our remaining observation must be a censure on the mode of describing the most affecting event in the poem, — the drowning of Leila. Is the reciter supposed to know or to be ignorant of the contents of the fatal sack? Even if he were ignorant, there is some puerility in dwelling so minutely on its gradual descent and final disappearance: but if the slightest suspicion had crossed his mind that a living human creature, a young and lovely female, was sinking in a watery grave, how could he find the leisure and the calmness to attend to such insignificant appearances? This passage seems to us to be not only the loss of an inestimable opportunity, but a positive blemish in the poem.

Nothing but respect for the genius of the author could have induced us to dwell so long on the defects of his work: defects the less to be tolerated, because they interfere with what is excellent, and because they might have been so easily obviated. The remarks which we have made are addressed to him; the quotations are provided for the entertainment of our readers; and it would flatter us exceedingly to think that the usefulness of the former could prove in any degree comparable to the pleasure which will be derived from the latter.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

For JUNE, 1813.

POETRY, &c.

Art. 13. *Spirit of Boccaccio's Decameron*; comprising Three Days' Entertainment; translated, selected, connected, and versified, from the Italian. Cr. 8vo. 3 Vols. 1l. 10s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1812.

No more convincing proof can be given of the unextinguishable spirit of Boccaccio, than the delight which will be afforded to such readers of this lame translation of him as never read any other. Lame we call it, because the verse is frequently most inharmonious, the language feeble, and the whole effect so inferior to that of the old prose version, that few if any who are acquainted with Boccaccio, even in the said version, will be induced to peruse all the present volumes. Still less will those who can relish the original endure so imperfect a copy. The author at times endeavours to be very literal: but he generally is as free as possible; and he has also taken the liberty of altering some of the stories, and of connecting the whole of his selections. The proper names are pronounced wrongly throughout. Philostratus, Pampinēa, Neophīle, are favourable specimens of the pronunciation of the 'Spirit of Boccaccio.'

If we look at literature only after its revival, Invention, pure invention in the plot and management of a story, will seem to be exclusively of Italian growth. Not only can we trace our own Shakspeare on almost all occasions to this fertile source of fable, but the French, and every other European nation that lays claim to literary honours, must in this primary mark of distinction defer to the Italian: but, if we turn our eyes still farther back, and examine the recorded efforts of eastern imagination long previously to the æra which we are contemplating, we shall find reason to detract something from the originality of the Italians themselves in this branch of composition. Whether it be the fruit of climate, of a warm sun, and an unclouded sky; or whether the consequent idleness and story-telling disposition of the Orientals combine to excite this faculty of invention; it is certain that European stories of every kind (especially the amorous) may be traced, mediately or immediately, to the East. The Greeks of antient times, and the Italians of later ages, have equally borrowed from this copious fountain-head of fancy: but few, if any, fabulists have so admirably mingled truth with fiction, and have so completely established their claim to a secondary if not a primary invention, as the great Boccaccio. The father, absolutely, of the modern novel and romance, (for he deals as much, if not more, in the detail of common and every-day-life as he does in wild and extraordinary scenes,) he has left all his successors and all his imitators at an immeasurable distance. His indecency was not only the vice of his time, but, mingled as it is with bold and just satire against the religious orders, it pleads an excuse which no wise contemporary would immediately have rejected. In our age, indeed,

the case is altered; and the present volumes, chaste as they are when compared with the original, are not fit to be placed on any lady's toilet. With this warning we shall conclude; assuring the male part of our readers that, in spite of all the faults to which we have alluded in the present 'Spirit of Boccaccio,' they will here find much to entertain them; and that many passages in the version reflect credit on the author's genius, and on his command of easy and appropriate expression. By his choice of subject, in the year 1812, he has voluntarily narrowed the circle of his readers to a small number.

Art. 14. *The Deserted Village School*, a Poem. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Co. 1812.

We should be glad to see the pleasantry of this writer more worthily employed, than in ridiculing that zeal for promoting the education of the poor which now pervades the kingdom. Few persons seem to question the expediency of teaching children of all ranks to read and write; and, since the old "Village Schools" were insufficient for this purpose, it may be well to assist or supersede them by later inventions. At any rate, and without engaging deeply in controversy with the author, we deem his fears about the alphabet perfectly futile, and can assure him that learning to trace the letters in sand is not 'a slippery knowledge gained too soon;' as well as that, if he chuses to 'peep' at some of Dr. Bell's school-mistresses, 'amidst their pigmy throng,' he may still see 'high spectacled her reverential nose,' as he informs us was the case with his favourite dame in days of yore.

Art. 15. *Fables in Verse*; from Æsop, La Fontaine, and others. By Mary Anne Davis. 12mo. Boards. Harris. 1813.

As a work intended for children, these fables have considerable merit; since they are written with a pleasantry which must make them attractive, and the moral lessons which they convey are adapted to young people: while the author's poetical style is easy, and sufficiently harmonious.

Art. 16. *The Times; or the Prophecy*: Second Edition. With other Poems. By George Daniel. Cr. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Wilson. 1813.

'A modern satirist has much to do,'

says Mr. Daniel, and he might have added, to execute that much well is a very arduous undertaking. The Times, or human nature under the various aspects which it assumes in the present cultivated yet whimsical, absurd and refined yet profligate age, must be allowed to open a wide and varied field to the moral observer; and if by "shooting folly as it flies," or by the aid of well-directed ridicule, those persons could be "touched and shamed" into decency and good conduct, who are now triumphant in their career because they are "safe from the bar, the pulpit, and the throne," all must acknowledge satire to be one of the most useful species of writing. What, however, are we to say on this head, when vice and folly continue to be as bold and shameless as if no satiric lash had ever been applied?

REV. JUNE, 1813.

P

Shall

Shall we intimate that the poets of our own days want fire and force to carry on so formidable an attack? Whatever may be their genius, they seem, in general, to over-calculate their powers. Yet it is the common fault of the modern satirist to glide into the easy track of imitation, when he ought boldly to aspire at cutting out a way entirely his own. Reminiscence, if not mistaken for invention, is made to supply its place; and the new author, at the moment when he is raising expectations of a new world, introduces the poetic reader to their old acquaintances. Whatever talents Mr. Daniel may possess, he seems to want sufficient pride to assert the independence of his muse; and so richly has he stored his memory from the pages of Pope, that he copies his thoughts, his expressions, his rhymes, and occasionally even his coarseness. *W*—e, at full length, often disgraces the verse of the Twickenham bard, but in our more refined age we do not call a *spade*, a *spade*; and we wish that Mr. D. had not repeatedly employed this coarse word and its synonyms. We have — ‘Peace to such bards’ — ‘Wind whistling through the panes’ — ‘With craving belly and with aching head’ — ‘When *saint and savage* hail the Lord of all’ — ‘I hate a titled rogue with all his fame’ — ‘Moralize his song,’ &c., which are modes of expressions pilfered from Pope; and though the following couplet is a little disguised, it is a close imitation of the same bard:

‘Curs’d is the wretch, unworthy of the Nine,
Who meanly pens one mercenary line.’

Mr. Daniel is not in the slightest degree suspected by us of coming under his own curse: but, if he be not mercenary, he, even as a satirist, may be suspected of being too severe; and when severity out “Herods Herod,” it loses all its effect. In giving a character of the Times, their religious fanaticism is fair game; and satire has a right to lash those ignorant preachers

‘Who know no more of Scripture *than a post*,
And count that doctrine best which pays the most:’

but we cannot believe

‘That rogues, to ‘scape the gallows, turn divines;’
nor that the Tabernacle-pulpit is supplied from Newgate. *Huntington* and other preachers of Methodism hitch in his lines: but poor Dr. Collyer is satirized at some length, and forms a portrait in Mr. Daniel’s severest and coarsest manner.

‘While gentle Collyer, pretty spoken youth!
Sings at his ease the mangled word of truths —
Talks small, and picks his teeth, then reads the text,
Converts a pretty girl, and weds her next: —
I loath the puppy, with his gospel rules:
A preaching coxcomb is the worst of fools!’ —

Why any stigma should be cast on the Doctor for converting a *pretty* girl, and marrying her afterward, we cannot find out. He did not convert her, we suppose, *because* she was pretty; and if this was one reason for marrying her, it was not a bad reason. After all, however, Dr. C. is still a Cælebs, who has not found a Lucilla.

Some characters in high life are attempted on this satiric canvas: but we cannot add that they are sketched with a masterly hand. One person among the great, designated by ****, is thus held up to view:

- But Fortune, ever mindful of his fate,
Creates her fool a Minister of State ;—
He robs the nation with rapacious hands—
His title asks for equipage and lands ?
Whores he must have, no matter from what source,
While mountebanks and fiddlers come of course ;
And what this villain does, because he's great,
Would hang a hundred rogues of mean estate.
Is this a statesman, this a public man ?—
View haughty ****, then doubt me if you can.'—

On the profession of the law, Mr. Daniel pours forth his vengeance: but can he be justified in the hint which he throws out respecting modern juries ?

- What, TRUTH a LIBEL ?—heaven defend my cause,
And shield me from it's enemy, ye laws.—
You speak too warm, some mischief may arise,
The Law's a foe, Attorneys are the spies ;
Attorneys vile, who when God's wrath begins,
He sends on earth to plague us for our sins.—
Produce an instance—if my counsel fail,
Will you lay down five hundred for my bail ?
*For j****s now, in these reforming times,
Like prudent souls make money of our crimes ;
And hate to see a Bribe (so honest grown,)
Fall into any pockets but their own.—
What filthy lucre ?—'tis a thing, we see,
Civility has softened to a fee.'*—

Farther on, Mr. D. lashes the gentlemen of the law, and seems to point his rage at a certain Chief Justice :

- Let no dull Justice take his daily pains,
By talking much to hide a lack of brains ;
(Like one *I know*, who sits with fury big,
In all the empty majesty of wig.)
And deeming libels worse because they're *true*,
Cage the poor author, and abuse him too.'

The prophecy, at the end of the satire, would teach us to hope that a certain illustrious prince will emulate the fame of Henry V., whose history is given, and then this hobbling couplet follows :

- Apply the tale—there perhaps may come a time
(And now I only *prophecy* in rhyme).'

In general, however, the lines have an easy flow, and the rhymes are good ; yet such as 'speak' and 'cheek,' 'fate' and 'wait,' 'calm' and 'harm,' &c., cannot but offend us. Mr. Daniel is perhaps capable of more energy than he has here displayed ; and if he should be

more difficult in pleasing himself, he will be more likely to succeed in pleasing his readers.

The poems subjoined to the *Times* are not of sufficient consequence to intitle them to particular notice.

NOVELS.

- Art. 17. *The Curate and his Daughter; a Cornish Tale*, by Elizabeth Isabella Spence, Author of "Summer Excursions," "The Nobility of the Heart," &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

The sentiments of this novel are unexceptionable; but the story abounds with improbabilities, and the author's morality is more correct than her grammar; since almost every page contains some inaccuracies, vulgarisms, or absurdities. For instance, in Vol. i. page 61., we read of '*the transitive breast of Lady Sophia*;' in Vol. ii. page 85., the same lady is made to exclaim, 'I drive my coach *in sin*;' in Vol. iii. we read of '*episcopalian bishops*;' in page 188., the epithet of '*beautiful incognito*' is addressed by one of the principal personages to his mistress; and the name of St. Aubyn is throughout metamorphosed into *Seyntaubyne*.

- Art. 18. *The Faithful Irish Woman; or the House of Dunder*. By Captain S. S. De Renzy. 12mo. 2 Vols. 10s. 6d. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1813.

Several expressions occurring in this work seem to evince that the author is the countryman of his fictitious heroine: but his work has also many grammatical errors which cannot be excused as being Irishisms; and it is moreover disfigured by *double entendre*. Yet the character of a faithful Irish domestic is well drawn: her language appears to have been copied from nature; and her uncouth expressions of attachment render some scenes at once laughable and touching.

- Art. 19. *She Thinks for Herself*. 12mo. 3 Vols. 16s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

Here is repeated, in very ordinary language, the hackneyed story of a fair damsel, who takes refuge in a farm-house from the persecution of her lovers, and, though amiably officiating in every menial capacity, preserves her hands and her dress as spotless as her mind. Some laudable sentiments, however, are to be found in the third volume; and, though this novel offers no attraction to fastidious readers, its faults of composition are not sufficiently glaring to prevent it from being placed, with many of its peers, on the shelves of a circulating library.

- Art. 20. *A Hero of Salamanca; or the Novice Isabel*. By H. M. Moriarty, Author of "Brighton in an Uproar," &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Souter. 1813.

In the commencement of this tale, we are abruptly introduced to a most courageous infant, who, having an arm and a leg broken, falls asleep till the surgeon arrives to set them; and the rest of the story is equally natural. We object to such names as '*Captain Ap-strap*,' '*The Reverend Mr. Faich*,' and '*Lieutenant Amphibious*;' and we blame

blame the author for inserting long descriptions of Oxford, Cambridge, and the kingdom of Siam, without an acknowledgement of the Geographical Dictionary whence they are borrowed. These passages are the best in the work, but they will be insufficient to preserve it from oblivion.

Art. 21. *Vaga; or a View of Nature.* By Mrs. Peck, Author of "*Maid of Avon*," &c. 12mo, 3 Vols. 18s. Boards. Robinsons. 1813.

The first title of this novel is perhaps more applicable than the author supposes, for we have seldom met with a book so deficient in point and meaning, or so replete with "long passages that lead to nothing." In some parts of the work, an imitation of Mad. Cottin's or Miss Owenson's writings appears to be intended: but the likeness is so unfavourable as to remind us of Dr. Johnson's observation on the production of one of his imitators: "It has the inflation of the Sybil without her inspiration."

Art. 22. *Scotch Law Suits; or a Tale of the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries.* By the Author of "*The Two Brothers*." 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Robinson. 1812.

This short tale bears some resemblance to the French "*Causes célèbres*," from its intricacy of legal perplexities, and the simplicity with which they are related. A little more embellishment and amplification might have excited greater interest for the principal characters than will now be felt: but the story of Mrs. Wilson is original; and the work is recommended by its brevity, and its entire freedom from affectation or false taste.

EDUCATION.

Art. 23. *Conséils à ma Fille; ou nouveaux Contes; i. e. Advice to my Daughter, or more Tales.* By J. N. Bouilly, Author of "*Tales for my Daughter*." 12mo. pp. 319. Boards. Colburn. 1813.

This volume may be considered as a sequel to the former production of the same author, which was mentioned in the M. R. for Jan. 1811, since M. Bouilly still offers his advice under the attractive form of tales. In some of these compositions, however, the *denouement* is too theatrical; many of the characters are such as will scarcely be found in real life; and in the story intitled '*Les Presomptions*,' the mistakes of the two sisters are exaggerated till they become unnatural. Yet, as this work uniformly inculcates lessons of practical morality, while it offers an agreeable variety of anecdotes, it may be read with amusement and advantage.

Art. 24. *The Juvenile Spectator.* Part II. Containing some Account of Old Friends, and an Introduction to a few Strangers. By Arabella Argus. 12mo. Darton. 1812.

We noticed this writer's first volume in the Review for January, 1811, and we announce with pleasure the second part of so pleasing a work.

The idea of a Spectator for children is ingenious; and the trifling faults and unpleasant habits to which they are liable are here displayed

played in a good-humoured and amusing manner. We cannot, however, congratulate Mrs. Argus on having attained the grammatical accuracy to which we counselled her to aspire. In page 38., we read the following sentence: 'The last *twelve months* has made;' and in page 142., 'Whose amiable mind and excellent character *has* excited,' &c.

Art. 25. *The Lady-Birds' Lottery; or the Fly's Alphabet.* By Queen Mab. Pocket 4to. 1s. Longman and Co. 1813.

Although it is beyond the comprehension of those children who have still the alphabet to learn, this ingenious performance may afford amusement in the nursery, and procure additional popularity for *Queen Mab*.

Art. 26. *A Guide to Tutors, Parents, and private Students,* in the Selection of Elementary School Books, in every Branch of Education, by the late Rev. Joshua Collins. A new Edition, revised and enlarged, by the Rev. Samuel Catlow, late Master of the Seminary at Wimbledon, &c. 12mo, 1s. 6d. Longman and Co. Elementary books for children are now published in such numbers, that a work like the present becomes desirable to assist the choice of teachers, by pointing out some of the most eligible performances in the different branches of education. Messrs. Collins and Catlow are too fond of recommending *selections* of history and poetry, instead of entire works which might be read with still greater advantage; but, on the whole, they have executed their task with ability, and have produced an useful little volume.

MEDICINE, &c.

Art. 27. *The Esculapian Monitor; or faithful Guide to the History of the human Species, and most important Branches of medical Philosophy; combined with moral Reflections, and enforced by religious Precepts.* By the Rev. Ed. Barry, M.D., Rector of St. Mary's, Wallingford. 8vo. pp. 170. 4s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

This work exhibits a character of benevolence in the writer, which we should have wished to have seen supported by a corresponding share of genius and ability: but, when the intention seems to have been pure, we are not disposed to criticize with severity any failure in the execution. This performance, as we may learn from the title, combines science with morality; the author describing the functions and structure of the body, and from these deducing rules for its proper government and direction. We do not know that the design can be considered as in itself objectionable; indeed it holds out strong recommendations; yet, from some cause, it has very generally happened that such plans have failed; and, in the present instance, the scientific part is unfortunately so meagre as to render it almost useless. The observations relative to medicine, however, must have the advantage of being harmless; since their extreme barrenness must prevent even the most sanguine reader from supposing that he had derived from them any insight into the knowledge or cure of disease. We will quote the whole section on dropsy:

' Dropsies

' Dropsies are chronic diseases, and originate from lax fibres, and may be either of general, or particular, affection of the body. The immediate cause of all dropsies arises from the circumstance of the exhaling vessels throwing off more fluid than the absorbent vessels can take up again.

' The indications of cure will principally consist in endeavouring to remove the cause of the disease, in discharging the waters effused into the several cavities, and fortifying the patient against a relapse, by nutritious and warm diet; strengthening the solids by proper medicines and exercise, and refraining, as much as possible, from the use of fluids.'

' To the latter part of the work we must allow more merit: it consists of a series of ' Remedies, in all cases of emergency, from sudden accident and alarm, which demand prompt and immediate help, chiefly selected from Dr. Fothergill's preservative plan, Dr. Struve's practical essay, and the reports of the Royal Humane Society; to which are added some other important observations.' It includes also the ' treatment of drowned persons, burning of females by their clothes having caught fire, a few cautions that might prevent the frequency of houses on fire,' and other articles of a similar nature. It is indeed a collection of useful information.

We conclude by quoting a set of ' general precepts, on the important concerns of health, and of acquiring the habits of a well-ordered mind.' Although some of these precepts may be deemed trifling, many very wise persons would do well to attend to them.

' 1. Exercise, temperance, and chastity, are as angelic guardians to preserve health; while indolence, excess, and sensuality, are the ambush demons to destroy it.

' 2. Avoid costiveness of body, by the occasional use of gently laxative medicines.

' 3. Proportion the clothing to the state of the weather, and if very liable to take cold—or subject to rheumatic affections, wear flannel next to the skin.

' 4. Guard against obstructed perspiration as much as possible; it is the lamentable source, in this variable climate, of the greater part of the diseases of its inhabitants.

' 5. Keep the feet warm, and the head moderately cool.

' 6. Avoid all sudden extremes, especially quick transitions from heat to cold, and from cold to heat.

' 7. Cleanliness of person, early retirement to bed, and quitting it betimes in the morning, give vigor to the intellect, cheerfulness to the mind, and firmness to the constitution.'

Art. 28. *The German Syphilitic Physician; or a Treatise on the Venereal Disease; containing the newest Method of Treatment of the most enlightened Physicians on the Continent. To which are subjoined a Glossary of medical Terms, and the necessary Prescriptions; chiefly for the Use of those, who, affected by this Disease, wish to ascertain its Nature in all its Appearances, and to assist themselves, so far as to avoid the dreadful Consequences of Empiricism and Quackery.* By George Charles Meyer, M.D., Surgeon

Surgeon in the East India Company's Service, &c. &c. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Highley.

We are not friends to popular medicine in general, and least of all to popular treatises on the venereal disease: which, on every account, is ill adapted for self-treatment. Its various forms demand the experienced eye of a practitioner for their discrimination; the remedies are of a most powerful nature, and, although absolutely necessary to be employed, should never be touched but by the most skilful hands: the disease requires for its removal a length of time, and a continued application of medicines, for which few persons under their own direction would have sufficient perseverance; and, lastly, the state of mind, which the subjects of this malady generally experience, renders them peculiarly unfit for the conduct of a long continued and delicate plan of treatment. Our objections against Dr. Meyer's performance, however, do not rest merely on these general grounds; the opinions which he advances are erroneous and dangerous; and doubly dangerous when broached for popular use.

Art. 29. *Anatomical Examinations.* A complete Series of anatomical Questions, with Answers. The Answers arranged so as to form an elementary System of Anatomy, and intended as preparatory to Examinations at Surgeons'-Hall. To which are annexed, Tables of the Bones, Muscles, and Arteries. The second Edition, corrected. 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Highley. 1812.

Both in the title and afterward in the preface, the object of this work is stated to be the communication of that degree of anatomical knowledge which may enable a candidate to pass through an examination at Surgeons'-Hall. We spoke of the first edition in terms of general approbation: (Rev. for May, 1811. p. 104.) but we would inculcate, on the minds of those who are aspiring to the honors of surgery, a determination not to trust to mere catechetical information; since it is certainly very easy to puzzle any person who is not really acquainted with the subject, whatever stock of questions and answers he may have stored up in his memory. Still, we think that such examinations as those before us are not without their use, by exercising the student at his first entrance on the science, in the use of terms: but we must regard them merely as forming a commencement of his studies, which are afterward to be forwarded and completed in the lecture-room and dissecting-room. The work is respectably executed.

POLITICS.

Art. 30. *Four Letters on the English Constitution.* I. On different Opinions concerning the English Constitution. II. On its Principles. III. On its Defects. IV. On the best Means of promoting its fundamental Principles. By G. Dyer. 8vo. pp. 136. 5s. Johnson and Co. 1812.

Being better known to the public as a poet than as a political investigator, Mr. Dyer deems it necessary to explain, in his preface, the motive of the present treatise. He was engaged, it seems, more than twenty years ago, in inquiries which obliged him to reflect seriously on the nature of our constitution, and to analyse the labours of various political writers. The eventful period that has intervened has been calculated, to use his own expressions, 'to elevate his thoughts,

thoughts, warm his feelings, and strengthen his reasonings.' Accordingly, though other engagements have prevented him from bestowing continued attention on this great subject, he has no hesitation in recurring to them, and in stepping aside for a season from more humble pursuits. After this preamble, and some general observations on the principles of government, Mr. Dyer proceeds to treat of the English constitution in four letters, or chapters, which follow each other in the order announced in the title-page. Notwithstanding the sanguine anticipations of personal friends, Mr. D. observed the precaution of printing a very limited edition of his work. Temporary questions, he remarks, may become popular in consequence of particular circumstances, but the case is different with political disquisitions directed to an analysis of general principles.

It would much exceed the space into which the overflow of political pamphlets obliges us to circumscribe our observations on each particular publication, were we to enter into an abstract of Mr. Dyer's elaborate essays. As far as we can judge, he acted very prudently in confining within a moderate compass his expectation of the sale of his pamphlet. The subject is dry, and his manner of treating it is not calculated to invest it with allurements. His style is deficient in brevity, and the reader is often put out of patience by preambles and circumlocutions when he is eager to arrive at what may be called the "marrow" of the reasoning. On the other hand, we do not often meet with an author who is possessed of such extensive acquaintance with writers on the nature of government as Mr. Dyer has evidently acquired; and the reader, who finds a reluctance to travel through the abstract disquisitions in these essays, may satisfy himself by a reference to a few passages (pp. 9. 15. 82.) as to the author's intimate knowledge of the labours of those who have preceded him. He will therefore probably be disposed to regret that Mr. D.'s time and talents have not been directed to topics of more general attraction.

Art. 31. *A Chart, exhibiting the Relation between the Amount of Bank-of-England-notes in Circulation; the Rate of Foreign Exchanges; the Prices of Gold and Silver Bullion, and of Wheat; accompanied with Explanatory Observations.* By S. Tertius Galton. 8vo. pp. 32. 2s. 6d. Johnson and Co. 1813.

Mr. Galton confines his observations in a great measure to the explanation of his engraved chart; of which it would be difficult to form a distinct idea without ocular inspection. We have long been of opinion that this method of elucidating a complicated subject might be adopted with great advantage in a variety of progressive calculations. Mr. W. Playfair's Statistical Breviary owed its perspicuity to delineations of this nature; and it may be safely laid down as a general rule of instruction, that an address to the eye is a less difficult and less tedious process than taxing the memory with arithmetical computations. In the present chart, the points illustrated are the Bank-of-England-notes in circulation,

Fluctuations of our exchange with Hamburgh,
Market price of gold-bullion,
————— silver-bullion,
————— of wheat.

Mr. Mu.

Mr. Muthet's tables of bullion and exchange have served for the ground-work of this Chart; and the chief difference between the two is that the one represents by lines and spaces that which the other exhibited in numbers. A few observations are added to explain the principles of currency; in which Mr. Galton avoids the discussion of controverted points, and expresses himself with a caution which can leave no ground of offence to either party.

WEST INDIES.

Art. 32. *An Essay on the good Effects which may be derived in the British West Indies in consequence of the Abolition of the African Slave Trade: including an Inquiry into the present insular Policy of those Colonies.* By Stephen Gaisford, Esq. 8vo. pp. 236. 7s. Baldwin. 1811.

In his preface, Mr. Gaisford apprizes the public that his observations on the West Indies are the result not of theoretic speculation, but of an actual residence of several years in that part of the globe; and he comes forwards as a decided enemy of the slave-trade, and a zealous advocate for improvements in the education of the negroes. Unfortunately, however, his style and disposition of materials are not such as will create a favourable prepossession on the part of his readers. He is fond of indulging in quaint expressions; such as calling his prefatory observation, 'precurative remarks,' and the free negroes 'the coloured free;' and difference of complexion is, according to his way of writing, no 'excusable cause' for disunion of interests among the inhabitants of the colonies. Without dwelling farther on these blemishes in the composition, we have no hesitation in agreeing fully with him (p. 169.) that the new system of education, whether on Bell's or Lancaster's plan, would be very well adapted to the children of negroes, and that the expence would be wholly inconsiderable. To cultivate the minds of these degraded beings is the true way to render them easily manageable, by giving them a feeling of propriety and an acute sensibility to the shame of punishment. It is the way likewise to make them intelligent and profitable workmen; and the present mode of treating negroes in our sugar-colonies is coarse and unskilful to an extraordinary degree. The acts annually passed by the island-assemblies for the regulation of slaves, while they limit the extent of punishment, and prescribe a regular allowance of food, are wholly silent with regard to the proper method of conducting plantation-labour; and the rule of working by the piece, plain as it seems, is very little practised in the West Indies, though our experience at home affords so many striking examples of its superiority over the indiscriminating plan of paying labour by the day or the week. 'I know, however,' says Mr. Gaisford, (p. 177.) 'conductors of plantations who have tried the experiment, in cases where they have had a piece of work inconveniently retarded, and they have been surprized to find how soon slaves would dispatch a day's task in the anticipation of a few hours day-light for their own appropriation.'

Mr. G. enters afterward on a discussion of the propriety of emancipating slaves. This is a very delicate question; and the unfitness of bodies of people, who are apparently superior to slaves, for the enjoy-

enjoyment of liberty, will be strongly urged on the opposite side. We allude not only to the miserable failure of the French, both at home and in the colonies, but to the more recent example of folly and disunion in the territory of the Caracass. It is perfectly clear that a people, unless considerably advanced in information, are incapable of enjoying a free constitution: but the question relative to our negroes has nothing political in it, and is in fact confined to the emancipation of individuals, on the payment of a stipulated price for each. 'This price,' says Mr. G. (p. 177.) 'should in no case be permitted to exceed the lowest general average-value of slaves.' Though we can by no means admit the infallibility of this rule, we coincide with Mr. G. in several other points connected with this question. We agree with him likewise in regretting the absence of gentlemen of property from our colonies. When the means of preserving health and of educating a family in that climate become more generally understood, we hope that the labouring classes will not be so much deprived of the improving example of their superiors.

Mr. Gaisford's book was intended for publication shortly after the abolition of the slave-trade; and it is dedicated to the Duke of Gloucester, as President of the African Institution. In his eagerness to deprecate slavery, he makes an historical reference to the circumstances of its gradual abolition in Europe; which might have proved an useful illustration of his reasoning, had he not unluckily fallen (p. 64. *et seq.*) into a variety of diffuse and extraneous observations. Nothing can be more calculated to lessen the utility of a book that is intended for the perusal of persons in whose eyes brevity and clearness are indispensable requisites. Mr. G. therefore must expect only a very partial adoption of his ideas, either among our planters or among the persons in connection with them on this side of the Atlantic. Should he be induced to resume the subject, it is to be hoped that, to his knowledge of useful facts and his ardour in recommending improvement, will be added a more successful mode of chasing and elucidating his arguments.

HISTORY.

Art. 33. *A Sketch of the principal Events of English History.*

By William Fell. 12mo. pp. 196. 3s. 6d. Boards. Rivington.

Mr. Fell announces this little work as designed chiefly for the use of young persons, and of those who may not have time or opportunity to peruse the English history at length. He is of opinion that the leading events in our annals produce a more striking impression when exhibited in separate order, than when blended with miscellaneous matter of subordinate importance. The chief contents of this compilation are as follow:

The Conquest.
Obtaining of Magna Charta.
Wars of York and Lancaster.
Reformation.
Gun-powder Plot.
Restoration.
Revolution.

Accession of the House of Bruns-
wick.
Rebellion in 1715.
Rebellion in 1745.
Rebellion in Ireland in 1798.
Origin and Succession of the Kings
of England.
The

The author's style is clear, and not devoid of animation; so that his book, without any pretensions to originality, may be said to fulfil the object of its publication. We have noticed occasional errors on the part either of the writer or the printer; of which we shall specify only one example, viz. (p. 146.) 'resolve to make an *eruption* into England.'

Art. 34. *Hints on the Laws and Customs of ancient and modern Nations*, respecting Marriage, Dower, Descent of Property, &c. By a Gentleman of the Middle Temple. 12mo. pp. 124. 5s. Sherwood and Co.

A heavy, indiscriminating compilation, consisting of scraps taken from a multitude of writers, without any attempt to ascertain their accuracy or probability.

Art. 35. *The Trader's Safeguard and Counting-House Guide*; containing the Laws relating to Masters, Apprentices, Clerks, Shopmen, Journeymen, Manufacturers, &c., setting up and exercising Trades; Bills of Exchange and Promissory Notes; Bankruptcy; Contracts and Agreements for the Sale and Purchase of Goods; Warranty, Payment, and Delivery of Goods; Usury; Cheating; Interest; Partnership; Agency; Suretyship; giving Characters to others, and entering into Securities for their Conduct; and a Variety of other Topics indispensable to be known by every Person connected with Trade. By John Rolle, Esq., Barrister at Law. 2d Edition. 12mo. pp. 303. 7s. Boards. Cook. 1812.

The contents of this compilation are so fully expressed in the title-page, that little remains to be added in the shape of explanation. The plan of the writer is to insert the substance of the law on the particular point discussed, and to add, regularly, a reference to the decision or statute which constitutes the authority. His subjects appear to be sufficiently well chosen; and the practical effect of frequent reference to a collection of this nature must naturally be to make a person in trade more familiar with the laws relating to his employment, than he would otherwise become without the lapse of a considerable time. The acquisition of such information by the routine of practice is slow and uncertain; the consequence of which is too often a resort to a much more expensive method of obtaining a decision, when a disposition to mutual conciliation, joined with a tolerable knowledge of law, might have enabled the parties to settle their differences in an amicable and summary manner.

Art. 36. *A Description of Fonthill Abbey, Wiltshire*. Illustrated by Views drawn and engraved by James Storer. Royal 8vo. pp. 24. 16s. Boards. Clarke.

The singular edifice, known by the name of Fonthill Abbey, is situated at the distance of eighteen miles from Salisbury. It was designed by Mr. Wyatt on a plan suggested by the proprietor, Mr. Beckford, and is undoubtedly the most expensive building in the convent style of which we have heard in recent times. It consists of three great parts; a castellated mansion; a large octagonal tower of 276 feet in height; and a spacious hall which projects from the building

like a chapel. Of so extraordinary a structure, no distinct idea can be formed from verbal description. The engravings given with the present tract are very good, but a want of clearness is observable in the narrative. The view from the top of the great tower is of vast extent, comprehending on one side Lord Arundel's terrace adjoining Wardour-castle, and extending on the other as far as Glastonbury. The immediate neighbourhood of Fonthill Abbey consists of ground finely diversified; and a journey of many miles may be made along the winding paths of the inclosures, without retracing the same surface. As shooting is not permitted within the fences, the game is seen sporting undisturbed; and hares pass quietly within a few paces of the windows, or receive food at a horse's foot from the hands of a rider. A part of this singular building remains unfinished; and comparatively little progress has been made in a magnificent tower which has been begun at a distance, on very elevated ground.

Art. 37. *Tales of the Poor; or Infant Sufferings.* 12mo. pp. 82. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

The chief claim to notice, which these tales possess, is founded on their appearance of truth*, and on the expediency that such miseries as they describe should be known and redressed. They seem to have been written from the impulse of real feeling, and a work thus elicited will seldom be found tedious. The present volume is short and simple, and we beg leave to recommend it for perusal.

Art. 38. *An Historical and Topographical Account of Fulham, including the Hamlet of Hammersmith.* By T. Faulkner. Author of "The Historical Description of Chelsea." 4to. 2l. 2s.; and 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Egerton. 1813.

Mr. Faulkner, having made his *debut* in a volume on the history of Chelsea, (see M. R. Vol. lxxiv. N. S. p. 330.) now ventures to come before the public by describing the adjacent town of Fulham, with its hamlet of Hammersmith, and the principal country-houses. In treating of these plain topics at so much length, the reader must be prepared for a notice of very humble matters; such, for example, as (p. 65.) the description of a church-porch, and (p. 358.) the donation of a pump and well, with the notable addition, in another part, (p. 161.) of an iron ladle. The book accordingly will interest only the worthy inhabitants of Fulham and Hammersmith; who, to judge from the subscription-list, have not been slow in patronizing it. To general readers the objects of attraction are very limited, being confined to a few records connected with public considerations; such as in (p. 11. and 458.) the copies of antient assessments, or the biographical notices of individuals of notoriety in the literary or political world, who have resided on the spots described. Among these, the reader will find Sir Nicholas Crispe, of the time of Charles I.; Sir Leoline Jenkins, who lived under Charles II.; Bubb Doddington, Lord Melcombe; Dr. Radcliffe, the benefactor to Oxford; Richardson, the author of "Sir Charles Grandison;" the late Mr. Johnson the bookseller, &c. &c. These sketches are extracted from magazines,

* The author states that they are descriptive of actual occurrences.
or

or other sources from which the diligence of the compiler enabled him to derive a brief notice of a remarkable inhabitant. Mr. Faulkner has the merit of attentive arrangement, and in general escapes error; except when as in p. 345. he touches on historical ground, and represents Robespierre to have been at the head of the French government in 1795.

Several engravings decorate this publication.

Art. 39. *Diurnal Readings*; being Lessons for every Day in the Year; compiled from the most approved Authorities, and calculated to combine Entertainment with Instruction. 12mo. 6s. bound. Sherwood and Co. 1812.

This volume offers much variety, and contains some useful and many amusing extracts from recent publications. Those from the writings of Dr. Buchanan and Dr. Clarke will be found particularly interesting: but the details from Prud'homme (mis-spelt *Proudbomme*, at page 290.) of the atrocities committed during the French Revolution, and the account of an impalement, from Stockdale, in page 268., with some other passages in the same style, are so horrible that perhaps the eye of youth should not be unnecessarily shocked with them. The description of "The Burning of Hindoo Women," in page 321., is copied from Southey's "Curse of Kehama," and not from the "Asiatic Researches," as is erroneously stated; and the name of *Nealliny* in this transcript changed to *Nealing*.

Art. 40. *Appendix to the Doctrine of Life Annuities and Assurances*, containing a Paper read before the Royal Society on a new Method of calculating the Value of Life Annuities. By Francis Baily. 8vo. pp. 78. 4s. Richardson. 1813.

It appears that this 'New Method of calculating Annuities' is the plan, not of Mr. Baily, but of Mr. George Barrett of Petworth in Sussex; who had, at a great sacrifice of time and labour, prepared in MS. a very comprehensive set of life-annuity tables. These he proposed to print in two large quartos, and to publish by subscription: but he failed in receiving adequate encouragement, either from the Life-Assurance-Companies or from other quarters. The hope of an extended publication being thus disappointed, Mr. Barrett drew up a short memoir, which was presented to the Royal Society, under the impression that they might deem it worthy of insertion in the *Philosophical Transactions*. Here, however, his friend was as unlucky as the original calculator; and they have, in consequence, both determined that the memoir in question should be brought before the bar of the public.

Mr. Baily begins by observing that such is the trouble attending the calculations of life-annuities, particularly when two or more lives are concerned, that the only tables fit for practical use are those of Dr. Price and Baron Maseres. He proceeds to explain (p. 22.) a method of abridging the labour of such calculations, or rather of arranging, on a new plan, the tables for determining the value of life-annuities. Various exemplifications of this plan are added in the shape of tables of annuities on single lives, on two joint-lives, on three joint lives, and on M. de Moivre's hypothesis.

These

These examples and the clearness of the accompanying observations relieve the subject, to an attentive reader, from a great part of its complexity; yet an explanation of it would require an extent of space altogether disproportioned to our limits. We must accordingly refer the persons interested in these calculations, to the memoir itself. Our Assurance-Companies are in the habit of doing business on the conclusions drawn from the estimates of life made at Northampton; and in this plan they are induced, says Mr. Bailly, to persevere, less from a conviction of the accuracy of these estimates as materials for comprehensive calculations, than from the convenience of referring to a variety of tables already computed from them. Mr. Barrett regrets much that these associations do not bring into practical use the observations subsequently made on the duration of human life in Sweden, and those of M. de Parcieux in France.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 41. *Uniformity, one great Criterion of "Keeping the Faith:"* preached at the Visitation in Canterbury, 1812. By the Rev. Edward Arthur Bush, M. A., Rector of St. Andrew's, Canterbury, &c. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

Art. 42. *A Vindication of Religious Liberty:* preached at Bridport, June 17. 1812. Before the Western Unitarian Society. By Robert Aspland. 12mo. 1s. Johnson and Co.

These two sermons came to us in the same parcel, and we put them together in the same article, not because they agree, but because they, *toio calo*, differ from each other. If the Churchman be right, the Dissenter is altogether in the wrong: but then the Dissenter has one holy person at least to stand by him, while the Churchman is deserted by that very apostle from whom he borrows his text. St. Paul, who speaks of having "kept the faith," (Mr. Bush's text, 2 Tim. iv. 7.) renounces *the idea of uniformity of faith* as chimerical; and in Romans xiv. 5., (Mr. Aspland's text) he affords the completest sanction to the fullest religious liberty, by laying down this general rule, "Let every man be fully persuaded in his own mind." Now with Mr. Bush's position this apostolic direction cannot be reconciled; and unluckily for him, as he belongs to a *protesting* church, which in reference to an older one has violated the principle of *uniformity* both in *faith* and *forms*, the very title of his sermon, as the vulgar say, *hits him a slap on the face*. The Church of England is too firmly established to be shaken by the efforts of sectaries: but, if she sincerely wished to unite dissentients to her communion, it must be done by a little accommodation, and not by a stiff and rigid adherence to every word and every custom that are sanctioned by the present system, which Mr. Bush recommends. That a connection subsists between keeping the faith and the reading of a precomposed sermon in preference to an address delivered without notes, it would be difficult for this preacher to shew: but abundant evidence exists to prove that an extempore preacher is more likely to fill our churches than the best possible *reader* of sermons. Yet preaching without notes, and any latitude in the short prayer introduced by the clergyman before the sermon, being contrary to custom, though

though not to rule, are censured by Mr. Bush as if injurious to the faith : but what a phantom must our faith be, if such shadows of shades could affect it ? So very timid a believer does more harm to Christianity than the boldest infidel.

Mr. Aspland, convinced that the Gospel is founded on a rock, has no gloomy apprehensions from the most enlarged exercise of religious liberty. He wishes not for "unity of opinion in the bond of ignorance, nor unity of profession in the bond of hypocrisy, but merely for unity of the spirit in the bond of peace." With a mind fully satisfied, after patient inquiry, of the truth of Christianity, Mr. A. would allow to the infidel that liberty which he claims for himself. Speaking in the name of the sect to which he belongs, he says, 'We blame no one for blaming us.' 'As the apostle in the text has renounced both for-himself and every one else authority to regulate the faith of another, he has afforded as decisive a proof as could be adduced of his admission of the inviolable right of the human mind to its own religious determinations.' Under the Gospel, the mind is certainly left free, and however desirable it may be to prevent dissention, we have no reason for supposing that the faith cannot be kept unless the Christian world be brought into one pale.

Art. 43. On the Religious and Civil Education of Poor Children ; preached at the Visitation of the Rev. Phineas Pett, D.D., Archdeacon of Oxford, held at Woodstock, June 1. 1812. By Vaughan Thomas, B.D. Vicar of Yarnton. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

'Reading (says Mr. T.) is a key to the treasures of Holy Writ, and therefore should be put in the hands of all. But writing and arithmetic, being qualifications for particular places, services, and sorts of business, should be reserved for specific purposes, and particular children.' We confess that Mr. Thomas has not, in our judgment, made out one atom of his position. He thinks that the agricultural poor need not be instructed in writing and arithmetic : but are not the agricultural poor liable to serve in the militia, and often sent into the navy ; and shall he object to qualify the common soldier and sailor for writing to his wife and family, or for receiving that promotion which his good conduct deserves ? As writing and accounts are now taught on the Lancasterian plan with great ease, we see no objection to the extension of these humble branches of learning to the poor ; and no one who has enjoyed the advantages of an University-education should object to throwing this pittance of science into the lap of poverty,

CORRESPONDENCE.

Mr. Galt's polite letter is received, and shall have consideration.

B. G. C. is entirely wrong in his conjecture.

Various other letters have reached us, which we have not leisure to specify, but to which we shall attend as occasion requires.

* * * The APPENDIX to our last Volume was published on the 1st of June, with the Number for May.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JULY, 1813.

ART. I. *Exploratory Travels through the Western Territories of North America*; comprising a Voyage from St. Louis, on the Mississippi, to the Source of that River; and a Journey through the Interior of Louisiana, and the North-eastern Provinces of New Spain. Performed in the Years 1805, 1806, 1807, by Order of the Government of the United States. By Zebulon Montgomery Pike, Major 6th Regt. United States Infantry. 4to. pp. 436. 11. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co.

AMONG the recent travels connected in point of subject with the present volume, are Michaux's journey to the westward of the Alleghany mountains, * and the more extensive peregrinations of Captains Lewis and Clarke across the American continent †. The former undertaking, though valuable on the ground of information, was limited in its object to the dominions of the United States: but the latter opened an unknown country to the geographical investigator, and shewed the American government how far their newly acquired territory, Louisiana, was likely to be benefited by channels of communication with the western ocean. Major Pike performed two expeditions, from a similar motive of ascertaining the situation and properties of particular districts of Louisiana. His first journey was directed northward to the sources of the Mississippi; and while it enabled him to make a report on the mode of navigating that river, it afforded also an opportunity of apprizing the Indian tribes, along its banks, of the extended jurisdiction of the United States.—In his second journey, his steps were bent to the west; and after having ascended the Missouri for several hundred miles, and taken steps to attach the savages to the American government, he proceeded to examine the navigation of the great rivers to the south of the Missouri. These missions were altogether of a public nature; the author being an officer in the American army, and receiving his instructions from General Wilkinson, the commander of the troops in Louisiana: while the substance of these instructions, moreover, was

* M. R. Vol. li. p. 272.

† M. R. Vol. lxiii. p. 328.

communicated to the President, and obtained his approbation. — In point of spirit and perseverance, a fitter person than Major Pike could not have been easily found : but his experience and judgment were not proportioned to his zeal ; and the relation of his adventures contains several proofs of the unfortunate consequences of a want of previous combination. — We apprehend that he is the same officer who, with the rank of Brigadier, lately fell in action with the British at the taking of York Town, in Canada.

The author, then only *Lieutenant* Pike, set sail on the first expedition from St. Louis, a station situated near lat. 38., a short way below the confluence of the Mississippi with the still larger stream of the Missouri. The time of his departure was 9th August ; a period of the year which, as we shall see presently, was too late by several months ; the fit season for undertaking a voyage to the source of the Mississippi being the beginning of summer, when the ice is melted, and before the decrease of water, which renders it difficult to pass the shallows, has taken place. The party consisted of himself, a serjeant, two corporals, and seventeen privates, all embarked in a keel-boat of seventy feet in length, with provisions for four months. His instructions were in substance as follow :

‘ You will please to take the course of the river, and calculate distances by time, noting rivers, creeks, highlands, prairies, islands, rapids, shoals, mines, quarries, timber, water, soil, Indian villages, and settlements, in a diary to comprehend reflections on the winds and weather. It is interesting to government to be informed of the population and residence of the several Indian nations, of the quantity and species of skins and furs they barter per annum, and their relative price to goods ; of the tracts of country on which they generally make their hunts, and the people with whom they trade. — You are to spare no pains to conciliate the Indians, and to attach them to the United States ; and you may invite the great chiefs of such distant nations as have not been at this place, to pay me a visit.’

It would be tedious to follow Mr. P. through his long list of observations on the channel and banks of the Mississippi, and on the appearance of the copious streams which flow from east and west to augment its waters. The scenery, though frequently grand, was seen by him to advantage only on a few occasions, when the state of the voyage allowed him to step on shore and ascend a commanding elevation ; and, while he kept to the river, his intercourse was generally confined to small parties of Indians passing along in their canoes. The savages in this quarter are no strangers to the benefit of traffic with Europeans :

‘ 19th August. — Whilst we were at work at our boat on the sand beach, three canoes, with Indians, passed on the opposite shore.

They

'They cried "How do you do?" wishing us to give them an invitation to come over ; but receiving no answer they passed on.'—'We afterwards met four Indians and two Squaws ; having landed with them, we gave them one quart of *made*, or diluted whiskey, a few biscuits, and some salt. I requested some venison of them, they pretended they could not understand me ; but after we had left them, they held up two hams, and hallooed and laughed at us in derision.'—

' 1st September. — Dined with Mr. Dubuque, who informed me that the Sioux and Sauteurs were as warmly engaged in opposition as ever ; that not long since the former had killed fifteen of the latter, who, in return, killed ten Sioux, at the entrance of the St. Peter's ; and that a war party, composed of the Sacs, Reynards, Puants, to the number of two hundred warriors, had embarked on an expedition against the Sauteurs, but that they had heard, that the chief having had an unfavourable dream, persuaded the party to return, and that I should meet them on my voyage. At this place I was introduced to a chief, called the Raven of the Reynards. He made a very flowery speech on the occasion, which I answered in a few words, accompanied by a small present.'—

' 12th September. — Opposite to Root river we passed a prairie called La Crosse, from a game of ball played frequently on it by the Sioux Indians. On this prairie Mr. Frazer shewed me some holes dug by the Sioux, when in expectation of an attack ; into which they first put their women and children, and then crawl in themselves ; they were generally round, about ten feet in diameter, but some were half moons, and formed quite a breast-work. This, I understand, was the chief's work, which was the principal redoubt. Their mode of constructing them is as follows : the moment they apprehend, or discover, an enemy on a prairie, they commence digging with their knives, tomahawks, and a wooden ladle, and in an incredibly short space of time sink a hole sufficiently capacious to secure themselves and their families from the balls or arrows of the enemy. They have no idea of taking these subterranean redoubts by storm, as they would probably lose a great number of men in the attack ; and although they might be successful in the event, it would be considered as a very imprudent action.'

That French names are still used for the Indian tribes is owing to the circumstance of French continuing to be the prevalent language throughout Lower Canada. In Mr. Pike's report of the different nations of savages, (if the word *nation* may be applied to such insignificant numbers,) we have not found much that differs from former descriptions. One tribe, he tells us, (p.128.) has acquired the use of fire-arms, but is not yet considered as superior to those who have only bows and arrows. In an open plain, the advantage of the former indeed is less apparent ; but it admits of no question in bush-fighting, where a bullet holds its course through obstacles which are sufficient to turn the feathered shaft from its direction. Two other tribes of Indians, called Yanctongs and Tetons, possessing

an ample stock of horses, are accustomed to move from place to place with a rapidity scarcely to be conceived by the inhabitants of the civilized world. The following is a population-table of the Indians residing on the banks of the Mississippi, and of its confluent streams, between St. Louis in Louisiana and the source of the river :

Names of Nations.	No. of Warriors.	No. of Women.	No. of Children.	No. of Villages.	Probable No. of Souls.
Sacs - - -	700	750	1,400	3	2,850
Foxes - - -	400	500	850	3	1,750
Jowas - - -	300	400	700	2	1,400
Winnebagoes -	450	500	1,000	7	1,950
Menomones -	300	350	700	7	1,350
Sioux - - -	3,835	7,030	11,800	3	21,675
Chippeways -	2,049	3,184	5,944	. .	11,177
Total - -	8,034	12,714	22,394	25	42,152

Of the state of morals among these untutored beings, the following anecdote may afford some idea :

• We marched, determined to find the lodges. Met an Indian, whose track we pursued through almost impenetrable woods, for about two miles and a half to the camp. Here there was one of the finest sugar camps I almost ever saw ; the whole of the timber being sugar maples. We were conducted to the chief's lodge, who received us in the patriarchal style. He presented us with syrups of the maple to drink, and asked whether I preferred eating beaver, swan, elk, or deer ? upon my giving the preference to the first, a large kettle was filled with it by his wife, of which soup was made. This being thickened with flour, we had what I then thought a delicious repast. After we had refreshed ourselves, he asked whether we would visit his people at the other lodges ? having complied, we were presented in each with something to eat ; by some with a bowl of sugar, by others beavers' tails, and other esteemed delicacies. After making this tour, we returned to the chief's lodge, and found a berth provided for each of us, of good soft bear skins nicely spread, and on mine there was a large feather pillow. In the course of the day, observing a ring on one of my fingers, he enquired if it was gold ? he was told it was the gift of one, with whom I should be happy to be at that time. He seemed to think seriously, and at night told my interpreter, " that perhaps his father (as they called me) felt much grieved for the want of a woman : if so, he could furnish him with one." He was answered that with us each man had but one wife, and that I considered it strictly my duty to remain faithful

faithful to her. This he thought strange (he himself having three), and replied, "that he knew some Americans at his nation who had half-a-dozen wives during the winter." The interpreter observed, that they were men without character; but that all of our great men had each but one wife. The chief acquiesced, but said he liked better to have as many as he pleased.*

The frontier-settlers, to whom the Indian chief referred, rank among the rudest of civilized traders. Many of them are of too restless a turn to remain in their native country, whether it be Europe or the United States; and they are not ashamed, in these remote quarters, to do things in the prosecution of their mercantile concerns, which they would be the first to condemn in a country of regular business. Amid all their improprieties, however, they possess in perfection the virtue of hospitality; and their assistance to a countryman in distress is not limited by the rules of cold calculation.

About two months after Mr. P.'s departure from St. Louis, the weather became cold, and the unfortunate error of setting out in autumn proved productive of very unpleasant effects. The keel-boat having been damaged and left behind, the party experienced much difficulty in pushing over the shallows the smaller boats in which they now attempted to make their way. At last, about lat. 45., they relinquished the farther prosecution of the voyage, and determined to proceed by land. It became necessary, therefore, to form an encampment of log-houses as a station for those of the party who were to remain behind, while the others went forwards to the source of the Mississippi. In this stage of the expedition, Mr. P. occasionally hunted in the woods, and was soon convinced of the precarious and uncomfortable plan of depending on such a source for the subsistence of his party:

* *Saturday, 2d November.* — Left the camp with the full determination of killing an elk if possible before my return. I had never yet killed one of these animals. Took with me Miller, whose obliging disposition made him agreeable in the woods. I was determined that if we came on the trail of elk, to follow them a day or two in order to kill one. This to a person acquainted with the nature of those animals, and the extent of the prairies in this country, would appear, what it really was, a very foolish resolution. We soon struck where a herd of one hundred and fifty had passed, pursued and came in sight about eight o'clock, when they appeared, at a distance, like any army of Indians, moving along in single file; a large buck of at least four feet between the horns leading the van, and one of equal magnitude bringing up the rear. We followed till near night, without being once able to get within point blank shot. Shortly after we saw three elk by themselves, near a copse of wood; approached near them and broke the shoulder of one, but he ran off

with his companions, just as I was about to follow. I observed a buck deer lying in the grass, which I shot behind the eyes, when he fell over. I walked up to him, put my foot on his horns and examined the shot, upon which he snorted, bounced up, and fell about five steps from me. This I considered his last effort, but soon after, to our utter astonishment, he jumped up and ran off: he stopped frequently; we pursued him, expecting him to fall every minute, by which we were led from the pursuit of the wounded elk. After having wearied ourselves out in this unsuccessful chase, we returned to pursue the wounded elk, and when we came up to the party, found him missing from the flock. Shot another in the body, but my ball being small he likewise escaped; wounded another deer. Being now hungry, cold, and fatigued, after having wounded three deer and two elk, we were obliged to encamp, in a point of hemlock woods, on the head of Clear river. The large herd of elk lay about one mile from us, in the prairie. Our want of success I ascribe to the smallness of our balls, and to our inexperience in following the track, after wounding them, for it is very seldom a deer drops on the spot where he is shot.

Sunday, 3d November. — Rose pretty early and went in pursuit of the elk; wounded one buck deer on the way; passed many droves of elk and buffalo, but being in the middle of an immense prairie, knew it was folly to attempt to shoot them. Wounded several deer, but got none; in fact, I knew I could shoot as many deer as any body, but neither myself nor companion could find one in ten, where an experienced hunter would have got all he shot. About sun down we saw a herd crossing the prairie towards us, which induced us to sit down; two bucks more curious than the others, came pretty close. I struck one of them behind the fore shoulder; he did not go more than twenty yards, before he fell and died. This was the cause of much exultation, because it fulfilled my determination, and as we had been two days and nights without victuals, it was a very acceptable prize. — After having proceeded about a mile farther, we made a fire, and with much labour and pains got our meat to it; the wolves feasting upon one half while we were carrying away the other. We were now provisioned, but were still in want of water; the snow being all melted; finding my thirst very excessive in the night, I went in search of water, and was much surprised after having gone about a mile, to strike the Mississippi: here I filled my hat, and returned to my companion.

The farther progress of the party was much impeded by the necessity of dragging their ammunition and baggage on sledges, and by unfortunate alternations in the weather from frost to thaw. They passed several weeks in this dreary and tardy journey, being frequently unable to advance above a few miles in a day; and they found the Mississippi now diminished to the width of one hundred yards, and holding generally a slow course through a level country. At last, in the beginning of February, they reached Leech-lake, the principal source of the river, and

were hospitably received at the house of one of the agents of the association of Canada fur-traders, incorporated under the name of the North-west Company. Adventurous as Mr. Pike was, he could not help being surprized that any inducements should be sufficient to prevail on men to withdraw from civilized society, and pass season after season in so inhospitable a solitude. This is, however, only one of the many ramifications of the North-west Company :

‘ The fur trade in Canada has always been considered as an object of the first importance to that colony, and has been cherished by the respective governors of that province, by every regulation in their power, under both the French and English administrations. The great and almost unlimited influence the traders of that country had acquired over the savages, was severely felt, and will long be remembered by the citizens on our frontiers.

‘ In the year 1766, the trade was first extended from Michillimackinac to the north-west, by a few adventurers, whose mode of life on the voyage, and short residence in civil society, obtained for them the appellation of *Coueurs des Bois*. From this trifling beginning arose the present North West Company, who, notwithstanding the repeated attacks made on their trade, have withstood every shock, and are now, by the coalition of the late X Y Company, established on so firm a basis, as to bid defiance to every opposition that can be made by private individuals. By a late purchase of the King's posts in Canada, they extended their lines of trade from Hudson's bay to the St. Lawrence, up that river on both sides to the lakes, from thence to Lake Superior, at which place the North West Company have their head quarters. This year they have dispatched a Mr. Mackenzie on a voyage of trade and discovery down Mackenzie's river to the North Sea, and also a Mr. McKay to cross the Rocky mountains, and proceed to the western ocean with the same objects. They have had a gentleman by the name of Thomson, making a geographical survey of the north-west part of the continent : who for three years, with an astonishing spirit of enterprise and perseverance, passed over all that extensive and unknown country. His establishment, although not splendid, (the mode of travelling not admitting it,) was such as to allow of the most unlimited expences in every thing necessary to facilitate his inquiries, and he is now engaged in digesting the important results of his undertaking.’

The recent occurrences in our contest with the Americans, on the side of Canada, exhibit in a striking light the continued influence of our Government and traders over their savage neighbours. At Leech-lake, the agent of the North-west Company lived in a house sufficiently fortified to withstand any attack from the Indians in a moment of discontent, and the British flag was hoisted on occasion of any public transaction. The latter practice, however, on the territory of a different power, was wholly contrary to national usage ; and Mr. Pike

found no difficulty in obtaining from the agent a promise to desist in future from this and other political irregularities. Having assembled the chiefs of the neighbouring savages, he explained to them the transfer, from Spain and France, of the sovereignty of the surrounding country, to the United States, and made them promise to conclude peace with the adjoining tribes. Afterward taking with him two of the young warriors as deputies to the American head-quarters, he proceeded on his return to the south. In this part, as in the voyage up the river, his journal is composed with a minuteness which, however valuable in an official report, has little interest for the public at large. On passing the small tribe of Indians called, by French travellers, Fols-Avoine, he was struck with their superiority over their neighbours in personal appearance. When drawing nearer home, about lat. 39., he had an opportunity of observing an instance of the vast multitudes of pigeons, which are to be found in certain favourable situations :

‘ About ten miles above Salt river we stopped at some islands where there were pigeon roosts, and in about fifteen minutes my men had knocked on the head, and brought on board, about three hundred. I had frequently heard of the fecundity of this bird, but never gave credit to what I then thought to approach the marvellous ; but really the most fervid imagination cannot conceive their numbers. Their noise in the woods was like the continued roaring of the wind, and the ground may be said to have been absolutely covered with their excrement. The young ones which we killed were nearly as large as the old ; they could fly about ten steps, and were one mass of fat ; their craws were filled with acorns and the wild pea. They were still reposing on their nests, which were merely small bunches of sticks joined, with which all the small trees were covered.’

We now come to the second part of the book, the journal of an expedition to the westward, towards that portion of the immense territory of Louisiana which borders on New Mexico. The object of this enterprise was twofold ; — to lay the basis of a good understanding between the Americans and the Indians of this quarter ; — and to ascertain the direction, extent, and navigation of the two great rivers known by the names of Arkansaw and Red-river. In this, as in the former expedition, the season was too far advanced, and the adventurers were again doomed to suffer the inclemency of winter. Having visited the savage tribes of the Osages and Pawnees, whose manners are rather fully described, the party held a southern course to the Arkansaw ; and, on reaching its banks, one division set out on a voyage down the river, while Mr. Pike and the other division marched in a western direction towards its source. Their support was derived

derived from the buffaloes and other beasts of game which they succeeded in shooting. They observed in their progress many burrowing places, or, as he terms them, 'towns' of the squirrels, or prairie-dogs, called by the savages "wish-ton-wish;" and he gives rather a minute account of the economy of these animals:

"The sites of their towns are generally on the brow of a hill, near some small creek or pond, in order to be convenient for water, and that the high ground which they inhabit may not be subject to inundation. Their residence, being under ground, is burrowed, and the earth brought out is made to answer the double purpose of keeping out the water, and affording an elevated place in wet seasons to repose on, and to give them a further and more distinct view of the country. Their holes descend in a spiral form, on which account I could never ascertain their depth; but I once had a hundred and forty kettles of water poured into one of them, in order to drive out the occupant, but without effect. In the circuit of the villages they clear off all the grass, and leave the earth bare of vegetation; but whether this be from an instinct they possess inclining them to keep the ground thus cleared, or whether they make use of the herbage as food, I cannot pretend to determine. The latter opinion I think is entitled to a preference, as their teeth designate them to be of the granivorous species, and I know of no other substance which is produced in the vicinity of their stations, on which they could subsist; for they never extend their excursions more than half a mile from the burrows. They are of a dark brown colour, except their bellies, which are white; their tails are not so long as those of our grey squirrels, but are shaped precisely the same. Their teeth, head, nails, and body are those of the perfect squirrel, except that they are generally fatter than that animal. Their villages sometimes extend over two and three miles square, in which there must be innumerable hosts of them, as there is generally a burrow every ten steps, containing two or more inhabitants, and you see new ones partly excavated on all the borders of the town. We killed great numbers of these animals with our rifles, and found them excellent meat after they were exposed a night or two to the frost, by which means the rankness acquired by their subterraneous dwelling is corrected. As you approach their towns, you are saluted on all sides by the cry of wish-ton-wish, from which they derive their name with the Indians, uttered in a shrill and piercing manner. You then observe them all retreating to the entrance of their burrows, where they post themselves, and watch even the slightest movement that you make. It requires a very nice shot with a rifle to kill them, as they must be shot dead, for as long as life exists they continue to work into their cells. It was extremely dangerous to pass through their towns, as they abounded with rattle-snakes, both of the yellow and black species, and, strange as it may appear, I have seen the wish-ton-wish, the rattle-snake, the horn-frog, with which the prairie abounds, (termed by the Spaniards the *Camelion*, from their taking no visible sustenance,) and a land tortoise, all take refuge in the same hole. I do not pretend to assert, that it was their
common

common place of resort, but I have witnessed the fact in more than one instance.'

The length of the march in search of the head of the Arkansaw greatly exceeded calculation; and the weather having become very severe, the travellers were deprived of the use of their horses. Mr. Pike, however, was determined to persevere, although the clothing of his men was not calculated for a winter-campaign. In the course of his march, he had heard of the safe return of Captains Lewis and Clarke from their long peregrinations, and their success tended to encourage his party to proceed. They advanced accordingly, day after day, at first to the west, and afterward to the south, agreeably to the direction of a river which they conceived to be the main branch of the Arkansaw. The most striking object in this dreary progress was an immense mountain, (p. 225.) the height of which they calculated at 18,000 feet above the level of the sea; an elevation inferior to few mountains except Chimborazo. It was known to the savages for several hundred miles around, and formed the north-western boundary to the excursions of the Spaniards of New Mexico. In vain the adventurous party attempted to ascend its sides; since, before they were half way up, they marched in snow which reached to their middles; and they had reason to apprehend that a perseverance in the attempt at such a season would lead to fatal consequences. Even in lower and less exposed quarters, the inclemency of the weather, and the effects of snow-storms in driving the beasts of game to places of shelter, had nearly been productive of melancholy results.

' 17th January. — When we halted at the woods at eight o'clock for encampment, after getting fires made, we discovered that the feet of nine of our men were frozen, and to add to the misfortune, of both of those whom we called hunters among the number. This night we had no provision.

' *Next day.* — We started out two of the men least injured; the doctor and myself, (who fortunately were untouched by the frost,) also went out to hunt for something to preserve existence. Near evening we wounded a buffalo with three balls, but had the mortification to see him run off notwithstanding. We concluded it was useless to go home to add to the general gloom, and went amongst some rocks where we encamped, and sat up all night; as from the intense cold it was impossible to sleep: also, hungry and without cover.

' 19th January. — We again took the field, and after crawling about one mile in the snow got to shoot eight times among a gang of buffaloes, and could plainly perceive two or three to be badly wounded, but by accident they took the wind of us, and to our great mortification were all able to run off. By this time I was become extremely weak and faint, being the fourth day since we had received sustenance,

sustenance, the whole of which time we were marching hard, and the last night had scarcely closed our eyes to sleep. We were then inclining our course to a point of wood, determined to remain absent and die by ourselves rather than return to our camp and behold the misery of our poor companions; when we discovered a gang of buffaloes coming along at some distance. With great exertion I made out to run and place myself behind some cedars, and by the greatest good luck the first shot stopped one, which we killed in three more shots, and by the dusk had cut each of us a heavy load, with which we determined immediately to proceed to the camp in order to relieve the anxiety of our men, and carry them some relief. We arrived there about twelve o'clock, and when I threw my load down, it was with difficulty I prevented myself from falling: I was attacked with a giddiness which lasted for some minutes. On the countenances of the men was not a frown, nor was there a desponding eye; all seemed happy to hail their officer and companions; yet not a mouthful had they eaten for four days. On demanding what were their thoughts, the serjeant replied, the most robust had determined to set out on the morrow in search of us; and not return unless they found us, or killed something to preserve the lives of their starving companions.'

Proceeding in a southern direction, the travellers discovered, by the aid of a glass, a large river flowing to the south-east, which they believed to be the Red-river, and consequently within the limits of Louisiana. They had now exchanged the inhospitable mountain-track, covered with perpetual snow, for a more kindly region, and had begun to recover their fatigue; when the arrival of a Spanish hunting party apprized them that they had gone beyond the frontier, and were on the banks of the Rio del Norte in New Mexico. Mr. Pike, finding his mistake, consented to accompany the Spaniards to Santa Fé, the residence of the governor, and to render an account of the object of his expedition. Santa Fé is a town of 4000 inhabitants, built in the wretched style which may naturally be expected in so remote a region. Poor, however, as were its inhabitants, the appearance of the American travellers was not such as to excite their respect. Mr. P. observes;

'When we presented ourselves at Santa Fé, I was dressed in a pair of blue trowsers, mockinsons, blanket coat, and a red cap, made of scarlet cloth, lined with fox skins; and my poor fellows in leggins, breech cloths, and leather coats; and not a hat in the whole party. This appearance was extremely mortifying to us all, especially as soldiers; and although some of the officers used frequently to observe to me, "that worth made the man," with a variety of adages to the same amount, yet the first impression made on the ignorant is hard to eradicate; and a greater proof cannot be given of the ignorance of the common people, than their asking if we lived in houses, or in camps like the Indians; or if we wore hats in our country. These observations are sufficient to shew the impression our savage appearance made among them.'

The

The governor of Santa Fé, declining to pass a decision on Mr. Pike's conduct, sent him and his attendants forward to the General of the province, whose station was at the town of Chihuahua, situated a great way to the south. The General chose to retain the chief part of Mr. Pike's papers, under the impression of their containing information relative to the Spanish territory: but Mr. P. was enabled to preserve a proportion of them by secreting them about the persons and even in the guns of his soldiers. His journey through the Spanish territory was of extraordinary length: but the season had now become more favourable, and he met with tolerable accommodation at the houses of the Spanish priests. On one occasion, he had a remarkable instance of the zeal of these ecclesiastics in making converts:

5th March. — Marched at nine o'clock, through a country better cultivated and inhabited than any I had yet seen. Arrived at Albuquerque, a village on the eastern side of the Rio del Norte. We were received by Father Ambrosio Guerra in a very flattering manner, and led into his hall, from thence, after taking some refreshment, into an inner apartment, where he ordered his adopted children of the female sex to appear, when they came in by turns. They were Indians of various nations — Spanish, French, and finally two young girls who, from their complexion, I conceived to be English: on perceiving I noticed them, he ordered the rest to retire, many of whom were beautiful, and directed these two to sit down on the sofa beside me. Thus situated, he told me that they had been taken to the east by the Ietans, passed from one nation to the other until he purchased them, (at that time infants,) but they could recollect neither names nor language. Concluding they were my country-women, he ordered them to embrace me as a mark of their friendship, to which they appeared nothing loth. We then sat down to dinner, which consisted of various dishes, excellent wines, and to crown all we were waited upon by half a dozen of those beautiful girls, who like Hebe at the feast of the gods, converted our wine into nectar, and with their ambrosial breath shed incense on our cups. After the cloth was removed, the priest beckoned to me to follow him, and led me into his sanctum sanctorum, where he had the rich and majestic images of various saints, and in the midst the crucified Jesus, crowned with thorns, but with rich rays of golden glory surrounding his head. The room being hung with black silk curtains, served to augment the gloom and majesty of the scene. When he conceived my imagination sufficiently wrought up, he put on a black gown and mitre, kneeled before the cross, took hold of my hand, and endeavoured gently to pull me down beside him: on my refusal, he prayed fervently for a few minutes, and then rose, laid his hands on my shoulders, and as I conceived blessed me; he then said to me, "You will not be a Christian. Oh, what a pity! oh, what a pity!" He then threw off his robes, took me by the hand, led me out to the company, smiling; but the scene I had gone through, made

made too serious an impression on my mind to be eradicated, until we took our departure an hour after, having received great marks of favour from the Father.'

In our reports of M. Humboldt's work *, we entered so fully into the general features of the Spanish territory in Mexico, as to render it unnecessary to dwell on the more limited details of Mr. Pike. Notwithstanding a prohibition from the Spaniards, he found means to note, every evening, the observations of the day : but his remarks, when they are not founded on subsequent reading, are necessarily confined to the result of personal observation. We pass over accordingly his local descriptions, (pp. 265. 334, &c.) and even his more explicit report (p. 377.) of the military force of Mexico, since recent events must have greatly altered the nature of its composition. It may, however, be instructive to our readers to learn some particulars of the method of deriving advantage from the immense herds of horses which run wild in the Mexican empire, particularly in the province of Texas :

' I observed on the prairie a herd of horses ; when within about a quarter of a mile, they discovered us, and immediately approached, making the earth tremble under them ; they brought to my recollection a charge of cavalry. They stopped and gave us an opportunity to view them. Amongst them there were some very beautiful bays, blacks, and greys, and indeed of all colours. We fired at a black horse with an idea of creasing him, but did not succeed ; they flourished round and returned again to view us. We then returned to camp. In the morning, for the purpose of trying the experiment, we equipped six of our fleetest coursers with riders, and ropes to noose the wild horses, if in our power to come amongst the herd. They stood until we approached within forty yards, neighing and whinnying, when the chase began, which we continued two miles without success. Two of our horses ran up with them, but we could not take them. Returned to camp. I have since laughed at our folly for, endeavouring to take the wild horses in that manner, which is scarcely ever attempted even with the fleetest animals and most expert ropers.'—

' The method pursued by the Spaniards in taking them is as follows : they take a few fleet horses and proceed into the country where the wild animals are numerous ; they build a large inclosure, with a door which enters into a smaller inclosure : from the entrance of the large pen they project wings out into the prairie to a great distance, and then set up bushes, &c. to induce the horses when pursued to enter within these wings. After these preparations are made, they keep a look out for a small drove ; for if they unfortunately should start too large a one, they either burst open the pen or fill it up with the dead bodies, and the remainder run over them and escape ; in which case the party is obliged to leave the

* M. R. Vol. lxi. p. 353. and Vol. lxvii. p. 35.

place, as the stench arising from the putrid carcasses would be insupportable, and in addition to this, the pen would not receive others. But should they succeed in driving in a few, say two or three hundred, they select the handsomest and youngest, noose them, and take them into the small inclosure, then turn out the others. After which, by starving, preventing them from taking any repose, and continually keeping them in motion, they subdue them by degrees, and finally break them to submit to the saddle and bridle.'

The author is of opinion that the inhospitable ridge of mountains, which bounded his journey to the west, is the highest ground of this part of the continent. The Arkansaw being navigable by proper boats till within two hundred miles of its source, the extent of land carriage, on merchandise destined for the waters flowing westward across the continent to the Gulf of California, would not (p. 223.) much exceed that distance. Naturalists have been at a great loss to account for the want of timber along vast tracks of country lying between the Mississippi and the western ocean : but it seems highly probable that these regions never were wooded, the soil being in general too sandy to retain moisture. Nor are the rivers of considerable magnitude, except in winter, the ground in many parts being dried and parched during the warm season, and presenting a surface of sand rolling like an African desert in all the fanciful forms of the waves of the sea. One good consequence, however, may arise from the barren nature of these solitudes ; — we mean, a stoppage to the endless wanderings of the frontier-settlers of the United States. Hitherto, one new province after another has been traversed, with as much impatience as if no part of the settled country afforded the means of acquiring a comfortable livelihood. If this rage for rambling cannot be relinquished, let its votaries at least pay attention to the cautions which are necessary in taking up their abode in an uncleared country.

'In a country covered with timber, the new emigrants are generally sickly, which may very justly be attributed to the putrescent vegetable matter which they put into fermentation in clearing, and by remaining on the ground, inhaling all the air which arises from the effluvia, intermittents supervene, and bilious attacks, and in some instances malignant fevers. These remarks are proved by the observation of all the first settlers of our western frontiers, that those places which in the course of ten or fifteen years become perfectly healthy, are for the first two or three years quite the reverse, and generally cost them the loss of two or three members of their families. I presume that this dreadful effect might be remedied if the settlers would go with the working hands and fell the timber and destroy the vegetation in the spring, and in the fall when dry burn it, but not reside on the place for at least the first two years, in the course of which time the atmosphere would by these means not be affected by

by the morbid exhalations arising from the before-mentioned causes; and the place would be as healthy a residence as any other in the same climate.'

We conclude our extracts by a summary of the Indian tribes inhabiting that part of Louisiana which was traversed in Mr. Pike's second journey :

Abstract of Indian Nations.

Names of Nations.	No. of Warriors.	No. of Women.	No. of Children.	No. of Villages.	Probable No. of Souls.
Osage - -	1,252	1,793	74	3	4,019
Kansas - -	465	500	600	1	1,565
Pawnees - -	1,993	2,170	2,060	3	6,223
Ictans - -	2,700	3,000	2,500		8,200
Total -	6,410	7,463	6,134	7	20,007

The degree of correctness with which these journals appear is, in some measure, owing to the care of the editor on this side of the water, Mr. Thomas Rees: the extent of whose interference is explained in an advertisement prefixed to the book; and exemplified in several amendments inserted (see p. 248, &c.) in the shape of notes. He might, however, have carried his editorial labours somewhat farther, and have corrected numerous negligences of style, such for example as (p. 256.) 'the party *how* in sight;' (p. 272.) 'the old veteran;' and the stranger error still of calling a Spanish adjutant (p. 322.) 'old and veteran.' In general, however, though inelegant and even inaccurate, the language is suited to the plain character of the narrative. Mr. Pike is no dealer in superfluous description; nor does he expand his relation by a tedious accumulation of subordinate particulars. His attempts at general observations are less successful, and he was deficient in knowledge and compass of reflection; though he is nowise liable, even in passages ungracious to a British eye, (as pp. 387. 389.) to the charge of intentional partiality. It is with too much truth that he laments (p. 389.) the unfavourable impression towards England, that was excited among the Spaniards of Paraguay by the rapacity of Sir Home Popham. — Mr. Pike is evidently a man of warm feelings, but at the same time not a little ambitious of shewing them. In speaking of the young Indians who consented to accompany him from the source of the Mississippi to the American head-quarters, he adds; 'I determined that it should

should be my care never to make them regret the noble confidence placed in me, for I would have protected their lives with my own. I gave my new soldiers a dance and a dram; they attempted to get more liquor, but a firm and peremptory denial convinced them I was not to be trifled with.' Again, on receiving a message from two of his unfortunate attendants, who, from inability to march, had been unavoidably left behind for a time in the dreary region near the sources of the Arkansas, he says :

' They sent on to me some of the bones taken out of their feet, and conjured me by all that was sacred, not to leave them to perish far from the civilized world. Oh! little did they know my heart, if they could suspect me of conduct so ungenerous! No, before they should be left, I would for months have carried the end of a litter, in order to secure them the happiness of once more seeing their native homes, and being received in the bosom of a grateful country.'

The zeal and perseverance of this enterprising party received (see prefatory papers, pp. 11, 12. 16.) the cordial approbation of the American government; and Mr. Pike, from a Lieutenancy, was promoted first to the rank of Captain, and next to that of Major. — As a topographical survey, his book is highly useful on the double ground of accuracy and perspicuity: but it can scarcely be accounted an amusing production, or interesting to those readers who are perpetually on the search for the pathetic and the marvellous.

ART. II. *Transactions of the Society, instituted at London, for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce; with the Premiums offered in the Years 1810, 1811, Vols. XXVIII. and XXIX. 8vo. 10s. 6d. each. Boards. Cadell and Davies, &c.*

THE former of these volumes is illustrated by a portrait of William Henry, Duke of Portland; and the latter by a portrait of Caleb Whitefoord, Esq.; both having been Vice-presidents of the Society. No other notice is taken of His Grace of Portland than that he was during 47 years a contributing member of five guineas a-year to the Society, was elected to the office of Vice-president in March 1794, and died October 30, 1810, in the 74th year of his age: but to the facetious Whitefoord a brief memoir is assigned, on account of his active services, and of the great attention which he always paid to the interests of the Society. As this memoir precedes the usual summary of contents, we shall in the first place detail the information which it conveys. We find that Caleb, the son of Colonel Whitefoord, was born at Edinburgh in 1734; that, after a grammar-school education, he was sent to the University, and intended by his father

Father for the church : but that, having objections to the sacred profession, he was sent to London and placed in the counting-house of a celebrated wine-merchant ; whence after four years he went to France, returned to London when he became of age, and commenced business, with a partner, in Craven-street, in the Strand. Fond of the society of learned and ingenious men, he formed a friendly intimacy with the celebrated Dr. B. Franklin, who happened to be his neighbour ; and this intimacy continued through life. In consequence of that connection, when Lord Shelburne, in the year 1782, resolved to put an end to the unfortunate American war, Mr. W. was chosen as a proper person to meet Dr. Franklin at Paris to negotiate the preliminary treaty of peace, and, having succeeded, his services were rewarded by a pension. Whether Mr. W. returned to trade after he had been employed as a negociator, the memoir does not inform us : but we believe that he was still connected with it, though his pension made him in a great measure independent of the world. He now " maintained a poet's dignity and ease," and was courted for the lively talents with which he was endowed :

‘ Possessed of a considerable share of wit, humour, and learning, Mr. Whitefoord lived in habits of intimacy with the greatest geniuses of the age. He was a Member of the Royal Societies of London and Edinburgh ; the Society of Antiquaries ; the Philosophical Society of Philadelphia ; and the Arcadian Society of Rome ; and one of the Vice-presidents of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, of which he had been a Member 48 years.

‘ In his younger years Mr. Whitefoord wrote many essays, poems, and epigrams, most of which he sent to the printer of the Public Advertiser, Mr. H. S. Woodfall, for whom he had a great esteem. He much improved, if he was not the original inventor of Cross-readings—Ship News Extraordinary—Errors of the Press—Female Administration, &c. &c. under the signature of *Papyrus Cursor* ; — several of which pieces are collected in Debrett's Foundling Hospital for Wit.

‘ His political bias never interfered with his literary friendships, and it was truly observed by Dr. Adam Smith, that although the janto of wits and authors hated one another heartily, they had all a sincere regard for Mr. Whitefoord, who, by his conciliatory manners and happy adaptation of circumstances, kept his circle together in amity and good humour.

‘ Mr. Whitefoord died, after a short illness, in February 1810, in the 77th year of his age.’

To this sketch of Mr. W.'s life, is subjoined the characteristic epitaph designed for him by Dr. Goldsmith, in the supplementary lines to the 4th edition of his poem intitled " Retaliation : " but this we need not transcribe.

REV. JULY, 1813.

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Having paid a tribute of respect to the memory of these two eminent deceased members, the Secretary proceeds, as usual, to present an outline of the contents of each volume, which is executed in a judicious and pleasing manner. The cultivation of the earth being of the highest importance, the papers on

AGRICULTURE

Occupy the first place, and several are to be found in each volume. At the head of this class, is an article descriptive of an improved *Thrashing Machine*, by H. P. Lee, Esq., of Maidenhead Thicket; which is said, in the certificates annexed, to be calculated to thrash more corn, in proportion to the power applied, than any yet invented. It is worked with only two horses; and yet in one hour and 55 minutes it thrashed eight quarters and 3½ bushels of barley, leaving the straw clean and unbroken. This must be a valuable implement, and Mr. Lee was presented with the gold medal for his invention, or rather improvement.

That eminent instructor and benefactor of his country, Thomas Johnes, Esq., of Hafod, in Cardiganshire, has not only added to his former extensive plantations 300,000 *Larch trees*, 30,000 *Beech*, and 10,000 *Spruce firs*, but has taught the Cambrians, by his practice, that their prejudice against the growth of wheat in that part of the country was unfounded. A report is given of the girths, taken six feet from the ground, of *Larch trees* in several of his plantations. Some planted in 1782 were in November 1810 twenty one inches in girth, or about seven inches diameter, at six feet from the ground. Gentlemen who have made plantations are requested to offer similar communications on the growth of timber-trees within stated periods.

John Christian Curwen, Esq., of Workington-hall, Cumberland, well known as a spirited and enlightened agriculturist, offers the result of some *Experiments on Stall-feeding of Cattle*, with the view of ascertaining the early maturity and propensity to fatten among the various breeds. 'Though,' says Mr. C. 'the experiment fails in deciding the superiority of one stock over another, it furnishes the most incontestable proof in favour of soiling or stall-feeding, and removes every doubt which may have been entertained of its being injurious to the health of the cattle.' Distinct tables are subjoined, exhibiting an account of the kinds of food consumed, and of the gain and loss in weight, from feeding the experimental cattle at the Schoose farm, on different green food, from October 1. 1808, to September 30. 1809, with the profits on each. *

On

* The Secretary, in the preface, bears this testimony to Mr. C.'s patriotic exertions:

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On the subject of *planting Pinaster Fir Trees on a poor Soil*, some hints are given by J. Berney Petré, Esq. of Westwiche house, Norfolk, who offers the result of long and extensive experience. The size to which the Pinaster grows, and the probable value of its timber, are considerations which merit public notice. Mr. P. has several in his groves which contain five loads of timber in a tree. — Subjoined to this paper is an account of some Chamomile plantations, belonging to this gentleman; and of the method which he employs in extracting the seed of the Pinaster from the cone.

A report is made of an addition to the productive surface of our island through the exertions of J. Stockdale, Esq., of Carl, in Lancashire, and R. Towers, Esq., of Duddon Grove in Cumberland; who at Windermoor, in Lancashire, *reclaimed from the sea more than 564 acres* by means of an embankment, which was about 4714 yards in length, and in some places 14 feet perpendicular height, the slope to the sea 90 feet, and the base 130 feet. The whole cost was 5,500l. This embankment was begun in the spring 1807; and in the spring of 1809 about 100 acres of the recovered land were fenced in, ploughed, and sown with oats, which produced 45 Winchester bushels per acre. Considerable profit is likely to accrue from this undertaking, and the honour of the gold medal was superadded.

Four improved farming implements are described in four successive papers, viz. *A screw adjusting Plough*, by Mr. T. Balla, of Saxlingham, Norfolk; *A Dock and Thistle Extirpator*, by Mr. J. Baker, of West-Coker, in Somersetshire; *A Pair of expanding Harrows*, by Mr. W. Jeffery, of Cotton-End, Northampton; and a *New Reaping Hook for Corn*, by Mr. Jos. Hutton, Jun., of Ridgway, near Sheffield. Mr. Baker receives, for so insignificant an instrument as a dock-drawer, or extirpator, (as it is called,) the gold medal; while only a silver medal is adjudged to each of the other three candidates. Mr. Baker has made a very trifling addition to the dock-drawer in common use, which we think did not intitle him to such a remuneration.

The first paper under the head of Agriculture in the xxixth Vol. is a kind of supplement to a communication by Dr. Bain of Curzon-street, affording a farther account of his *Plantations of Forest Trees* made at Hefleton, in Dorsetshire. His exertions in

‘As a practical farmer he has grown, upon an estate held in his possession, upwards of 6000l. worth of corn in one year; and has furnished to the poor, within the same period, from his own cows, more than 17,410 quarts of milk, and sold the new milk at 2d. per quart, and skim-milk at 1d. wine measure; and as a planter he has planted more than 1,000,000 of timber-trees in the course of twelve months.’

this line have been extensive. Between the 25th of September 1807 and the 30th of April 1808 he planted on 125 acres of poor soil, of the Scotch fir, 249,700; of the Pinaster, 5,410; of the Larch, 2,150; of the Spruce, 1,259; in all 258,519 trees. To Mr Petre's remarks on the Pinaster, those of Dr. Bain ought to be subjoined. His report concerning this species of the fir-tribe is that 'it grows most rapidly, is quite regardless of the sea-winds, and is, when ripe, a tree of considerable value.'—'It is ascertained, I believe, (says Dr. B.) that the wood of Larch in a favourable situation comes to perfection at forty years old, that of Pinaster at sixty, and that of Scotch fir at eighty years' growth.'

A subsequent paper states that Henry Andrews, Esq., of Wakefield, had planted in February 1809, and in February and March 1810, on his estate at Kirby cum Osgodby, near Rasen, in Lincolnshire, 123,000 *different kinds of Forest trees, of which 22,000 are Oaks*, between four and five years old, on about 37 acres of sandy soil unfit for tillage. To this gentleman also the gold medal was voted: but, by a letter from his widow, we learn that he did not live to be gratified by this honorary reward.

William Congreve, Esq., of Aldermaston-house, Berkshire, perseveres in his exertions to create a forest on his estate. Besides his 73 acres of land which, according to a former report, he had planted with acorns, he has since January 1808 appropriated 190 acres of a poor flinty heath to a *plantation of Larches, in which were set 684,560 plants*. Mr. C. does not purpose to stop here, but has it in contemplation to extend his plantation of the Larch to five or six hundred acres.

Mr. Cowlshaw, of Mansfield, presents himself as a planter of *Larches* on a smaller scale; having in April 1808 appropriated 14 acres and three rods to a *plantation containing 75,600 Larches*. The whole expence, including the purchase of the land, which was 26ol. 16s., and posts and rails for the fence 3ol. 9s., was 356l. 12s. 6d.

An useful invention, calculated to save trouble and waste in brick-work, is stated in a communication by John Stephens, Esq., of Reading, in Berkshire; who explains *A Method of making Bricks for Closures and under-ground Drains*, by cutting them three-fourths through in the middle, and the whole of the way through at each end, by means of a small wire. This operation is performed two or three days after the bricks are moulded, when they are taken from the stack, and put on a board or stool for the wire to be pressed into them; they are then returned to the stack, and afterward burnt. Bricks thus partly cut through with a wire will divide, by one smart blow with a trowel, into two complete king-closures, which will again make four

four common closures. Bricklayers must be aware of the utility of this simple invention: but brick-making does not properly belong to Agriculture, any more than pitcher-making, or pottery. A plate is given, explanatory of Mr. S.'s method of dividing bricks.

It not unfrequently happens in our uncertain climate that, at the moment when the husbandman expects to obtain the fruits of his labours, his hopes are blasted, or, to speak more properly, washed away by a series of showers, with little intervening dry weather, at the time of harvest. To obviate this misfortune, various expedients have been tried: but the only judicious method seems to be by forming temporary hollow stacks in the field. William Jones, Esq., of Foxdown-hill, near Wellington, Somersetshire, gives an account of his *Invention of a temporary Rick to secure Corn in Sheaves in the Field till quite dry; also Clover, Peas, and Beans*. The mode recommended seems to be very well calculated to answer the intended purpose; and Mr. Jones has so fully explained it, (subjoining, moreover, an illustrative plate,) that any farmer who attentively peruses the account may be enabled to construct a similar temporary rick. For want of the plate, we cannot afford a full idea of the process: but it may be worth while for the cultivators of arable land to consult the volume, since Mr. Jones bears the most ample testimony to its utility. Four gate-hurdles are used to keep the bottom of Mr. J.'s temporary rick from touching the ground. On these hurdles, and some cross stakes, a rick containing 812 sheaves is erected.

An account of *An Improvement on the Dibble or Tool for planting Acorns in Bushes*, which are the natural protectors of the infant oak from the brousing of cattle, is given by Mr. Charles Waistell, High Holborn.

From H. B. Way, Esq., of Bridport Harbour, a double communication was received; in which he first offers some remarks *On the Culture and Preparation of Hemp in Dorsetshire*, and next *On the Growth of* that excellent esculent vegetable, *Sea Kale*. Not being a farmer, Mr. Way's statement respecting the culture of hemp must be regarded as the result of hints which he has collected; and when he tells us that the growers of hemp are shy in communicating information, we cannot attach much importance to his letter: but, on the subject of *Sea Kale*, he offers the results of long experience; and though we do not with him consider this vegetable as equal to Asparagus, yet, as its precursor, being ready for the table in February and March, it ranks high in our list of esculent plants. Mr. W. assures us that 'it will succeed as well, if not better, in poor ground than in rich, provided the soil be dry, and care taken in the management;' he tells us also that he 'prefers that which is bleached

with round sea gravel, about the size of large peas or beans, to any other mode.'

CHEMISTRY.

Premiums having been offered by the Society for the purpose of bringing to light, and of introducing to use, the produce of our own quarries, a communication has been made on the interesting subject of *Searching and working Quarries of British Marble*, by Mr. Isaac Jopling of Gateshead, Durham. Lieutenant-General Vallancey also sent *Specimens of Irish Marble*, intended to decorate the Great Room of the Society; and Alexander Mitchell, Esq., of St. Alban's Street, gave various *Specimens of Granite and other Minerals*, to be placed in the Society's Repository. In exploring marble quarries, Mr. Jopling has been very indefatigable.

'I spent,' says he, 'seven summers and two winters in Assynt, a parish situated in the north-west corner of Sutherlandshire, not less than fifty miles from a market-town, where there had never been a road, a cart, or a smith who could shoe a horse, during which time I opened many quarries of marble, and made, at least, fourteen miles of road, through heretofore impassable mosses, bogs and rocks, to the sea. The difficulties and disadvantages I have laboured under were innumerable; meat, coals, iron, and every article were to fetch from such a great distance; and the people, "torpid with idleness," as Mr. Pennant expresses it in his Tour, and to which I refer for a description of this place, would do nothing for me without an exorbitant price, and never till it suited their own convenience; and from having no markets, and not being in the habit of selling, they could never be persuaded to part with any article at less than nearly double its worth.'

Notwithstanding these discouragements, Mr. J. persevered to a certain extent in obtaining some specimens from the Assynt quarries, which he forwarded to the Society: but he complains bitterly of his hardships, vexations, and losses, in a 'seven years' personal attendance upon a search for marble, in such a country, where, from bad houses and a wet climate, I was seldom dry, day or night, except in fine weather, of which there is but little; and for the loss my own business has sustained here in my absence. To this account of expense, hardship, and loss, I might add a little of vexation in having my tools broken, and frequently thrown into bogs; corn sown in my road; my oxen hunted before my face, for miles, with *their* dogs, and my grass eaten by *their* cattle, for whole summers together.' Mr. J. visited other quarries; and in a subjoined table he notices 36 different kinds of marble, stating their colour, situation, and quality.—General V. gives a list of 29 sorts of Irish marble.—Mr. Mitchell's present consists of seven specimens of polished granite and

and two of porphyry. John Ewen, Esq., of Aberdeen, from whom Mr. M. received the granites, &c., adds that, 'in the upper district of the county, beautiful specimens of the *Amianthus*, the asbestos of Pliny, are in great variety; and that the *Cadnorum*, as it is improperly called, from that species of crystal having been first noticed in the neighbourhood of that mountain, near the source of the Spey, is also found in Aberdeenshire.'

A letter from Mr. B. Cook of Birmingham contains an account of his *Method of producing Heat, Light, and various useful Articles from Pit-coal*. If Mr. Cook's products of Petroleum, Asphaltum, &c., be of the importance here represented, he deserved a higher gratuity than the silver medal. 'I dare venture to say,' he observes, 'that from the various coal-works in this kingdom, more tar might be produced than would supply all our dock-yards, boat-builders, and other trades, with tar and pitch, besides furnishing a substitute for all the oil of turpentine and asphaltum used in the kingdom, and improving the coke so as to make iron with less charcoal.'

Mr. Cook's apparatus cannot be explained without the help of the plate which accompanies his communication: but it will be satisfactory to that class of manufacturers who are interested in his discoveries, to learn that he intends to establish a work of magnitude sufficient to supply that part of the country in which he is situated, with oil, or spirit, extracted from pit-coal, so as to supersede the use of turpentine, &c., in japanning. Mr. C. recommends the preservation of the tar by means of properly constructed coke-furnaces; adding, 'it would be a great saving to the nation, as in every one hundred and twelve pounds of coal coked, there is lost by the present mode about four pounds of tar, and the cokes are not half so good as if they were coked in close vessels, to the exclusion of the atmospheric air.'

Induced by the enormously high price of turpentine, tar, and pitch, H. B. Way, Esq., of Bridport-harbour, repeated some experiments which he had seen practised in America; and the results are communicated in a paper which exhibits his *Method of procuring Turpentine and other Products from the Scotch Fir*. (*Pinus Sylvestris*, Linn.) The trial was made under unfavourable circumstances on three trees, which yielded only about 2½ lbs. of turpentine. The process, which is very simple, consists in making an excavation near the bottom of the Fir, and stripping off the bark above the hollow. Only trees intended to be cut down can prudently be subjected to this experiment. According to Mr. W.'s memoranda, in America 3000 trees produce from 100 to 110 barrels of turpentine. An

account is subjoined of the process of making tar and pitch in the United States.

By the same gentleman, we are presented with a second communication, which details his *Method of preparing a cheap and durable Stucco, or Plaster, for outside or inside Walls*, when exposed to sea-breezes or bad weather. The recipe is as follows: 'Three parts Bridport Harbour-sand to one of lime, both finely sifted, and mixed with lime-water; if used as stucco, the first coat to be laid on half the thickness of a crown-piece; let it remain two days, then with a painter's brush wash it over with strong lime-water, and lay on the second coat of the same thickness.' A certificate is annexed, signed by Thomas Everett, stone-mason, bricklayer, and plaisterer; who, after having executed 2983 square yards of this stucco, vouches for its durability, and offers his opinion that it is the cheapest stucco known.

Only two papers on POLITE ARTS appear, and both are in the xxviiiith Vol. It must suffice for us to transcribe the titles.

An Improvement in the Acquatinta Process, by which Pen, Pencil, and Chalk Drawings can be imitated. By Mr. J. Hassell, No. 11. Clement's Inn. (See Rev. Vol. lxxviii. N. S. p. 95, 96.)

A Method of preparing On-Gall in a concentrated State for Painters, and for other Uses. By Mr. Richard Cathery, No. 14. Mead's Row, Westminster-road, near the Asylum, Lambeth.

We come now to the class intitled MANUFACTURES. Mr. Edward Smith, of Brentwood, Essex, details his success in *manufacturing, from the Fibres of the common Nettle, Thread, and Articles resembling Flax, Hemp, Tow, and Cotton*; and in a second letter he offers the results of farther experiments. He has produced specimens of *Cloth and Cordage made from the Nettle, which appear to possess great strength and durability*. We are informed by the Secretary that the fibres of the Nettle sent by Mr. Smith 'are not inferior in quality, in any respect, to those of the best hemp and flax.' How far the manufacture of Nettle-Flax would succeed on a large scale, however, is a matter of doubt.—The editor should have referred the reader to Vol. vii. p. 112, of the Society's Transactions, where an account is given by Mr. Greaves of *paper made from the bark of Withen and green nettles*: but, in the conclusion of his letter, Mr. G. recommends the omission of the nettles.

In Mr. Alexander Duff's *Draw-Boy, a Machine for weaving figured Silk Goods*, (an account of which occurs in Vol. xxv. p. 51, of the Society's Transactions,) *an improvement* has been made by John Sholl, No. 11. Elder-street, Norton-falgate; by which, according to the certificates of silk-manufacturers, it is

now

now rendered very complete. An explanatory plate accompanies the communication.

Mr. John Locket, of Donnington, near Newbury, presented the Society with a napkin of his manufacture, in order to prove that he has attained the art of *weaving Damask Linen Napkins equal to Foreign*. If the napkin was an evidence of success, he merited the silver medal which he obtained.

As a *Substitute for Leghorn Plait for Hats, &c.* Mr. W. Corston, of Ludgate-hill, gave in Vol. xxiii. of the Society's Transactions an account of his *British Plait*, made of *Split-straw*; and in a subsequent communication he now enlarges on the success of this manufacture in England.

Numerous are the papers in MECHANICS; and we lament, while we admire the genius directed to matters of utility and comfort which displays itself so commendably in this department, that our space will allow us to offer little more than a dry report of them.

When it is considered how large a proportion of his Majesty's subjects "go down to the sea in ships, and do business in great waters," and to what unavoidable perils and sufferings mariners are exposed, any judicious hint on the preservation of lives in cases of shipwreck is of importance. The Rev. James Bremner, Minister of Walls and Flota, in the Orkney-Islands, therefore deserves grateful mention for a *Method* which he has devised, and here detailed, of *making any Ship's Boat a Life-boat, to save the Lives of a Crew in imminent Danger*. Though his stipend is less than seventy pounds a year, he has incurred considerable expence in making experiments; yet he seeks no public remuneration for his efforts, satisfied with the reward which arises from the consciousness that many fellow-creatures may be saved by the scheme which he has devised. After a most affecting description of the poor sailor struggling with the storm, and about to be wrecked, (a scene which this humane clergyman had himself witnessed,) Mr. Bremner proceeds to a full explanation of his invention; which consists in effectually securing *empty casks* in boats, and filling up the sides with cork, by which they will become buoyant, making augur holes through them, adding ring-bolts to the keel, and furnishing them with well secured slings and seizing ropes. The particular process of preparing ships' boats for life-boats is too long for insertion; but the practicability and utility of the plan are amply attested. Substitutes and expedients which may be used in cases of actual or threatened shipwreck, in carrying into effect Mr. Bremner's plans, are also suggested, for which we must refer to this interesting paper. It is stated that

• Mr. Bremner's

‘ Mr. Bremner’s plan is of more general application than the ordinary schemes for the construction of life-boats, the object of it being a simple and expeditious method of converting every boat whatever, in all its situations of danger, into a life-boat, so that at the same time that a boat retains all its common utility, it may be also easily resorted to as a safeguard against danger, and in many cases, as the only possible means of escaping from death, otherwise inevitable ; where life-boats, properly so called, as well as every other means of escape, are wanting.’

The silver medal and 20 guineas were adjudged to Mr. B. ; who claims also the invention of *Gun-Locks for Cannon*, now adopted in all British ships of war.

The security of the navy has been consulted by Mr. Samuel Hemman, of his Majesty’s Dock-yard, Chatham, by *improved Mooring-Blocks of Cast Iron for Ships* ; which, owing to their great weight and peculiar construction, are certified to answer extremely well, and to be superior to any anchors whatever. All the line of battle ships which have been moored with them were found to ride with perfect safety.

Man is subject to perils not only in the ocean but in the crowded city ; and in the latter, families and their property are often destroyed by devouring flames, when spectators look on without the power of affording any effectual assistance. Various means have been contrived to obviate the evils attendant on this calamity ; and Mr. Davis of John-street, Spital-fields, has been properly remunerated for his *Method of assisting the Escape of Persons, and the Removal of Property, from Houses on Fire*. The apparatus seems to be well contrived ; and one of his machines should be in every parish, and accompany the engine on all alarms of fire. It consists of three ladders, sliding into each other, which are placed perpendicularly in the middle of a framed carriage, mounted on four wheels, which may be drawn by one horse or six men. By a windlass, the ladders wind out so as to reach to the third story of a building. Provision is also made for elevating and lowering a box for the removal of property from the upper stories of a house, when the lower parts are on fire. The plan is good and practicable.—Some years ago, we saw a model of a fire-escape made by a foreigner, the principle of which was very similar to that of Mr. Davis : but it is probable that Mr. D. never saw nor heard of it, because this foreigner shewed it only to a few friends, and was not long in England.

All who are acquainted with the sciences of astronomy, navigation, and land-survéying, are aware of the importance of obtaining instruments for taking observations which are accurately divided. Mr. Ramsden, in 1775, received a reward from the Board of Longitude for his dividing engine,

and Mr. J. Allan, of Blewit's Buildings, Fetter-lane, has now been honoured with the gold medal for *his Improvements in a Mathematical Dividing Engine*. It is impossible, without the plate and annexed references, to convey to the reader an idea of these improvements: but Mr. A.'s mode of racking the teeth is noticed, in the certificates, as an important discovery, productive of a high degree of accuracy in dividing circles of a small radius.

In Vol. xxix. Mr. Allan offers a communication describing *a Reflecting Circle, in which the Screens can be readily shifted in taking Altitudes*. This instrument will be of great service to mariners; it is La Borda's circle improved. With a theodolite affixed, it will be useful also to surveyors.

Mr. Bryan Donkin, of Fort Place, Bermondsey, has presented an *Instrument, called a Tachometer, for ascertaining the Velocities of Machinery*. The nature of this contrivance, and its mode of operation, cannot be briefly detailed: but its object is to indicate the velocity of machines; so that, by attaching this tachometer to any machine, it detects every deviation from the most advantageous movement.

Sadlers, harness-makers, and others, will know how to appreciate their obligation to Mr. Lewis Aubrey, of Fort Place, Bermondsey, for his *Implements for equalizing the Width and Thickness of Leather Straps*: but a description of them would not be very amusing to our readers at large. It may be remarked also of the next communication, that it can only interest those who are in the particular line of business to which it refers: we shall therefore leave them to thank Mr. Charles Williams, of No. 3. Cane Place, Gravel-lane, Southwark, for a *Method of boring the conical Parts of Brass Cocks*.

[To be continued.]

ART. III. *A New Translation of Ovid's Metamorphoses*. By Thomas Orger. With the Original Latin Text. To be published quarterly, and completed in Fifteen Numbers. Nos. II.—VIII. 8vo. 1s. 6d. each. Sherwood and Co.

THE translator of Ovid has no sinecure. He must not only avoid the guilt and the suspicion of plagiarism, but, to insure any success, he must command the most varied powers of versification, have every poetical synonym in the English language at his ready disposal, and, above all, must be proof against the temptation which overcame Rowe in his Version of Lucan, that of amplifying an author who is already too diffuse. We have given some general sketch of Mr. Orger's character as a translator in our brief review of his first Number, (M. R.

(M.R. Vol. lxi. p. 433.) and in continuing to accompany him on his classical journey, we entertain hopes that he will improve on acquaintance.

The second book of the *Metamorphoses* commences with the well-known description of the Palace, Chariot, and Horses of the Sun. We shall present our readers with the passage, as newly rendered by Mr. Orger : but we shall neither contrast it with a quotation of the original, nor with extracts from the older translators. The Latin and the English are in the hands of almost every scholar.

‘ The gorgeous palace of the God of light
Shone in the East majestically bright,
The lofty columns, glorious to behold,
Were starr’d with jewels and emboss’d with gold ;
Fair iv’ry beams the spotless roof inlay,
The folding portals cast a silver ray :
Yet gold, nor gems, nor ivory impart
A wonder equal to the sculptor’s art—
Here Vulcan gave a new creation birth,
With mimic seas embracing mimic earth ;
Here land was pictur’d, and th’ ethereal plain,
And Sea-gods flounder’d in the grassy main,
Triton and Proteus of ambiguous form,
And huge Egeon, giant of the storm,
High o’er the deep in scaly triumph rides,
Parts the rude billows, and a whale bestrides.
Fair Doris here her blooming daughters led,
Some frolic in old Ocean’s azure bed,
Some ride on fishes, others on the rocks
Seem to recline, and dry their humid locks ;
Not wholly diff’rent, yet not quite the same,
Their features their affinity proclaim.
Here sculptur’d earth bore over-arching woods,
And men, and cities, beasts of prey, and floods.
Nymphs of the chace, and Demigods were there
And Heav’n refulgent glow’d in upper air.
Six Zodiac signs the dexter portals grac’d,
And six were o’er the left in order plac’d.’

These lines do not flow inharmoniously, but they betray several faults, according to our judgment. For ‘example — ‘Gorgeous palace,’ line 1. If the palace of the Sun was ‘shining’ and ‘majestically bright,’ where was the necessity for calling it ‘gorgeous?’—‘Sea-gods *flounder’d*,’ line 12.—‘Huge Egeon, *giant of the storm*,’ line 14., is gratuitous bombast ; and much more in the manner of the inflated nonsense which occasionally disfigured that most promising of poems “The Pleasures of Hope,” than in the playful and perspicuous style of Ovid.—‘Parts the rude billows, and a whale bestrides,’ line 16.,
may

may be quoted as a capital instance of the *ὁλοσπον ἡπολοσπον*; while 'scaly triumph,' line 15., must be recorded as "a fine indistinct expression." — 'Not wholly different,' &c., 21. and 22. is a very tolerable couplet: but "*qualem decet esse sororum*"* is not adequately translated by 'their features their affinity proclaim.' — "*Cetera numina ruris*" are ill represented by 'Demigods.' (Line 25.) Indeed it seems clear that Pan, Sylvanus, the Satyrs, Fauns, &c. &c., were the beings intended. — 'The dexter portals,' line 27., sound awkwardly. Why not 'right-hand?' Whenever we can substitute an expression less latinized for one that is more so, are we not obeying the dictates of good taste in the composition of English verse or prose?

The description of the days, months, and years, and especially of the seasons, is well translated;

' There blooming roses infant Spring adorn,
There Summer glows array'd in wreaths of corn;
And Autumn, red with trodden grapes, is there,
And hoary Winter shakes his frozen hair,'—

although "*nuda estas*," should have been "array'd" in nothing.

These are the passages which induce us to augur favourably of the continuation of Mr. Orgér's labours: but let him not be misled by the facility of translation, which we think he possesses; let him not be satisfied with giving the first shadow of his author's meaning which occurs to his imagination; let him not be tired with touching and retouching his picture of Ovid, till the resemblance has all the exactness of a miniature with all the spirit of a portrait. Excellent as many of the versions of detached passages in the *Metamorphoses* certainly are, the whole has never been properly clothed in an English dress; and the translator, who should perform this service for his countrymen, would undoubtedly merit and meet with very general approbation. — To proceed with our critical advice, which we shall offer at large, in the real hope that it will claim the writer's attention.

The opposition between "*dissuadere*" and "*negare*," lines 52. and 53. of the original, is lost in the translation; and this omission is peculiarly faulty, because antithesis is the pervading characteristic of Ovid's manner. — We advance to line 199. of the translation without any striking offence, and with much easy and natural poetry: but Phaëton's farewell acknowledgements to his father, when mounted on the Chariot,

* Surely a more beautiful simile was never formed; than the application of this couplet to the different modes of Christian worship. See the Preface to Hall's Sermon on Infidelity.

(*Invito grates agit inde parenti,*)

appear to us vulgarly rendered by

'Thanking Phœbus with exulting nod,
Bids glad farewell to the reluctant God,'

not to mention the amplification.

'Dismay'd, he knows not *where* to bend his course,' (L. 220.)
is prosaic and inaccurate; although the pun in the original is still worse:

"Nec scit quâ sit iter."

'Thou too, Boötes,' &c. 'essay'd to fly,' (Lines 227, 228.)
is not to be overlooked; and the first of the two following
lines (269, 270.) concludes most execrably:

'The clouds are lost in smoke, earth's *summits* nigh
Yawn in the blaze, and mourn their fountains dry.'

We should have noticed, as we passed, line 202.,

'Fleet Pyrœis, and Eous breathing fire,'

which *would be* a verse if the copulative conjunction were left
out; for we trust, from even the *partial* correctness of his
quantities, that Mr. Orger does not pronounce *Ēōūs* as a dis-
syllable. — Ismaros (line 315.) is printed by mistake for
Ismenos.

We now turn with pleasure to the only welcome part of
criticism, and select the speech of the Earth from this story of
Phaëton; in which we think our readers will agree with us
that the translation is elegant and poetical.

'If for my crimes I now am doom'd to die,
Where sleeps thy thunder, monarch of the sky?
If thus to sink, o'ercome by fires, be mine,
Let lightnings blast me, and the fires be thine;
At once annihilate thy forfeit Earth,
And give a death where once thou gav'st a birth.
Scarce will my tongue articulate my vows;
(For now dense vapours gather'd round her brows)
View my burnt tresses, see the cinders rise,
Choak my spent breath, and scorch my face and eyes:
Are these due honors to my fertile soil?
Are these the fruits of all my annual toil,
That still from day to day I patient bow,
Torn by the harrow, tortur'd by the plough,
That shade and food to cattle I supply,
Support to man, and incense to the sky?
Yet, grant it fit that earth to ashes turn,
Why mourns thy brother his exhausted urn?
The seas, his portion'd lot, subside, and move
A deeper distance from the heav'ns above.

If

If him and me thou spurn'st, and careless grown,
O'erlook'st our good, at least consult thine own.
See pitchy clouds the plains of glory cloak,
And Heav'n's two poles involv'd in curling smoke;
If but one spark to upper ether strays,
Jove's gilded courts shall perish in the blaze.
Lo! Atlas nods, and bending seems to dread
Th' incumbent axle glowing o'er his head.
If all things perish, sky, and earth and main
To ancient Chaos must return again.
Save what remains, while aught remains to save,
And rescue Nature from her final grave.'

We could point out some blemishes in this passage; such as the jingle of vowels in the first couplet, and some other peccadilloes: but we forbear. Line 364.,

'And give a death where once thou gav'st a birth,'

is so truly Ovidian, that we were surprized to find that it did not belong to Ovid. It is, however, one of those happy transgressions which extort indulgence. We give Mr. Orger (be it observed) full credit for the originality of his best thoughts, and do not pursue him to Dryden or Addison, to Garth or Sewell, or to any of his predecessors; and we trust that we shall not have reason to repent this confidence, on any future references.

The best passage in the remainder of the second book is the visit of Minerva to the cave of Envy. It is indeed very happily translated; and we shall extract it for the edification if not for the amusement of our readers:

'Thro' low brow'd rocks descends the heav'nly maid,
To seek the fury in th' infected shade.
Deep in a cave the sad retreat she finds,
Hid from the sun, impervious to the winds;
Eternal night and ceaseless winter dwell
With kindred horror in the dreary cell.
The warlike maid, not daring to advance,
Now strikes the portal with her pointed lance;
The gates unbarr'd, confess'd the fury stood,
Vice her support, and vipers' flesh her food.
Pallas scarce dares to cast her eyes around,
When Envy, slowly rising from the ground,
Leaves her vile food, in writhing heaps display'd,
And feebly totters towards the martial maid.
But when she saw a Goddess in her charms,
Blooming in beauty, and renown'd in arms,
She groan'd; her bosom heav'd with galling sighs;
Lean was her form; obliquely cast her eyes;
Wan was her cheek; imbu'd with rust her teeth;
And bloated poison swell'd her breasts beneath;

Venom

'Venom and gall her tainted tongue defile;
 And nought but human woe provokes her smile;
 By gnawing cares oppress'd, she never sleeps;
 She laughs at misery — at joy she weeps;
 To torture others, rears her hissing snakes,
 And self tormenting, feels the hell she makes.'

'Vice her support,' line 1010., falsifies the original, (*Viperæ carnes vitiorum alimenta suorum*), which conveys a very different idea; 'galling' is a bad epithet for 'sighs'; and 'imbued with rust' is a confusion of metaphor: but, on the whole, justice is done to a very animated description.

'Pallas recoils, the dame repugnant *bates*,'

(where the verb '*bates*' is used for the immediate operation of hatred,) is a line very unfit to follow the foregoing. The second book concludes with the rape of Europa; which is well rendered.

In the third book, we were sorry to find several of Actæon's hounds miscalled; or rather to hear their names wrongly pronounced:

"*Ichnobâtesque sagax* *,"

'with Cretan Ichnobâtes,' line 243.: but, in the original, only line 207. Mr. Orger will do well often to make these comparisons, and thus to avoid the "easily besetting sin" of diffusion. We are well aware how necessary an evil this is, to a certain degree, in rendering Latin verse into English: but still, as an evil, and exactly that evil most likely to be incurred, it is the point of all others against which we should be most on our guard.

The story of Narcissus has often exercised the poetical talents of the ablest English translators. Among them all, however, we do not hesitate to prefer the version of the Rev. Robert Bland, published with the minor poems in the second edition of his "*Edwy and Elgiva*." As this is the principal novelty of the work in question, we have not broken through our general rule of omitting new impressions: but the present occasion has induced us to turn to Mr. B.'s pages; and for the benefit of Mr. Orger, as well as for the entertainment of our classical readers, we cannot avoid referring to so excellent a translation of one of the most picturesque descriptions in Ovid. The mode of version adopted by Mr. Bland is more free than that of Mr. Orger; and some slight alterations also are introduced into the story by the former translator, in order to

* The other instances are Oribâsus, and Agriôdos; the penultima in both cases being short.

adapt it more perfectly to modern feeling and taste. We, however, give Mr. Orger credit for overcoming some difficulties in the original with much adroitness; and we subjoin some passages of his version:

‘ Narcissus now, in sixteen circling years,
Nor yet a man, nor yet a boy appears;
Him youths in friendship, maids in love behold,
But haughty pride, a heart reserv’d and cold,
Usurp his bosom, and conspiring blend
To freeze the lover, and repel the friend.
Echo, the nymph amid the mountains nurt’d,
Repeating last, and never speaking first,
Beheld Narcissus with a hunter’s spear
Drive to his nets the nimble footed deer;
Not then, as now, a disembodied shade,
Yet then, as now, restricted spoke the maid;
When to her lips her words for utterance past,
Drown’d were the first, and only heard the last.’

We omit the lines which relate the cause of Echo’s punishment, and proceed with the story of Narcissus: who

‘ —Now the hunter’s sport pursues;
Echo beholds, and kindles while she views;
Herself unseen, pursues with fond desire,
And feels at each approach a brighter fire.
So, tipp’d with sulphur, torches dart their rays,
Touch’d by a spark so kindle in a blaze.
Oft would she strive his pity to beseech
With mild entreaties and persuasive speech,
But nature checks each sentence in its course;
Thus foil’d, the nymph prepares her sole resource,
To trace the rover o’er the sylvan plain,
Wait till he speaks, and then respond the strain.
By chance Narcissus in a lonely place
Had distanc’d all his followers in the chase.
Who’s there? exclaim’d the youth, the am’rous fair
Caught his last accent, and repeated, There.
Amaz’d, he casts his eyes the hills around,
And cries, come hither — she returns the sound.
Again he stopp’d, again he thought to find
Some fellow sportsman in the vale behind.
Whither so fast? he cried — she caught the strain,
And every word sent back to him again.
Once more he listens to the vocal cheat,
And cries, again deluded, Here we meet:
Th’ inviting note her soul with transport fills,
And here we meet, resounded from the hills.
Swift from the copse enamour’d Echo sprung,
Embrac’d his neck, and on his bosom hung;
He struggling said, Thy rude embrace remove,
Death be my portion ere I yield to love —

I yield to love, rejected Echo cries,
 And to her green recess indignant flies;
 Where, hid in caves, the solitary maid
 Conceals her crimson blushes in the shade.
 Yet love remains, his darts her bosom goad,
 And gnawing cares the sleepless fair corrode.
 Her waning body sickens in despair,
 Till all its juices dissipate in air:
 Her voice alone survives; her fleshless bones
 Cling to the rocks, and harden into stones;
 The phantom fits the hills and mountains round,
 Heard, but not seen, a disembodied sound.'

We find nothing half so successfully told as the above story in the remaining part of the third book; and we turn to the fourth, where the simple tale of Pyramus and Thisbe gives the translator another opportunity of displaying the force and elegance of the English couplet: which he occasionally does, although in a much inferior degree to some of his contemporaries. We are sorry to observe in the invocation to Bacchus, at the opening of this book, the gross defect of ear which could lead Mr. Orger to pronounce *Iacchūs*, as it must be pronounced in the following verse;

'And Iacchus, and every other name.'

We trust that the examples of carelessness, which we have here pointed out, will warn the author in his future numbers. We would not attach undue consequence to matters of metre: but the correct admeasurement of proper names is indispensable, and a Gradus is at every body's command.

Mr. Orger has been unfortunate in the commencement of Pyramus and Thisbe:

'In Babylon, whose lofty sides around
 Semiramis had solid ramparts bound,
 Young Pyramus and Thisbe, peerless pair,
 Contiguous dwelt, and drew congenial air.'

It proceeds with equal dissimilarity to the original, if not with equal dulness;

'Sol, from his eastern turret, ne'er survey'd
 So fair a youth, so beautiful a maid,
 The verdant vireath their infant friendship wove,
 Grew as they grew, and blossom'd into love.'

Why add this prettiness to Ovid, who already abounds in such decorations even to excess?

"*Notitiam, primosque gradus vicinia fecit,
 Tempore crevit amor.*"

This simple relation is in Ovid's best manner ; and we must condemn the taste which deserts it for an unnecessary flight of fancy, however pleasing on a proper occasion. The "*paries domus communis utrique*," which describes with such delightful clearness the incident on which the story is founded, is totally lost in the poor detail of the translation,

' When with cement the wall the builder knit,
It warp'd, unseason'd, and asunder split.'

Ovid is totally guiltless of this prosaic and bricklayer-like description.

When the lovers have made their midnight appointment, how is all our natural sympathy chilled by such a line as the following?

' A spot by mutual compact *they assume*.'

Cupid defend us from such an *assumption* !

' The *obvious* footsteps of a beast of prey'

miserably render "*vestigia certa fera*:" but the denouement of this sad tale is well executed ; and the succeeding verses are of as much better stamp :

' Then printing kisses on his clay cold cheek,
Speak ! she exclaim'd, my Pyramus, O, speak !
Say whence these horrors ! raise thy drooping head,
Thy dearest Thisbe calls thee from the dead !
The well known name recall'd his flitting breath,
And stay'd awhile the heavy hand of death ;
His fading eyes one moment saw the light,
Gaz'd on his love, then clos'd in endless night.
Soon as she saw, half hid, his corse beneath
The scarf she quitted, and the vacant sheath,
O youth ! she cried, lamented and ador'd,
Love offer'd, and thy hand receiv'd the sword ;
I, too, have love, a hand with thine to vie,
Like thee I suffer, and like thee I die :
Soon shall my faithful shade on thine await,
At once the cause and partner of thy fate ;
Not greedy death, who all alike devours,
Not death himself shall sever hearts like ours.
Ye mournful parents of a mournful pair,
Attend in pity to our dying pray'r ;
In one short hour we meet an equal doom,
Our love was common, common be our tomb !
And thou, O tree ! whose boughs of dismal hue
Wave o'er one corse, and soon shall shadow two,
Still may thy gloom with scenes of sorrow suit,
Dark be thy shade, and sable be thy fruit.
Thus wild, despairing, spoke the constant maid,
Then buried in her breast the reeking blade.

To love's last pray'r both heav'n and earth consent,
 Th' immortals pity, and their sires relent.
 Sable, when ripe, the pouting berry grows :
 Their faithful ashes in one urn repose.'

The descent of Juno to the infernal regions, animated and impressive as it is in the original, loses but little in the translation : though we must except such lines as

' *Where spectres wander, reckless where to go.*'

The "*muta silentia*" of the shades should also have been preserved. Yet the following four verses do some credit to their author :

' A downward path, by baleful yews o'erspread,
 Winds to the dreary mansions of the dead ;
 Thither descend departed shades, to mix
 In sad communion on the shores of Styx.'

Let us, however, again admonish Mr. Orger not to be contented with a general expression of the meaning of his original, but to endeavour to preserve every peculiarity in the descriptions of so picturesque a poet as Ovid.

The adventure of Perseus and Andromeda is rendered happily enough ; and we have little to object to the subsequent narrations of Perseus, except the manner in which he celebrates the former beauties of Medusa :

' *Men have I heard, who once admir'd the fair,
 Dwell with peculiar rapture on her hair.*'

This is exactly the style of a very feeble female novelist, put into doggerel of ten feet by her only reader. Indeed we must insist on the dismissal of all such couplets from Orger's Ovid. Who can endure the following ?

—— ' His boyish mien,
 And rash demeanour, *spoke his age sixteen,*'

which is to be found in the description of Atys, book the 5th. The original only says — "*bis adhuc octenis integer annis*" — without a word about 'boyish mien,' or 'rash demeanour.' We therefore conceive the version to be a libel on Atys, as well as on Ovid. The dread necessity of rhyming has also produced such a line as

' The well-aim'd arrow fail'd his heart to *probe,*
 But hung entangled in the hero's *robe.*'

' *In blood imbu'd,*' in the same unfortunate passage respecting Atys, is, we conclude, a mistake for the stronger expression "*imbru'd*;" but the succeeding vulgar familiarity cannot be excused :

* *Perseus*

" Perseus the sword that slew Medusa try'd
On Lycabas, and plung'd it in his side ;"

and perhaps we ought in strictness to condemn the expression of a heathen bard 'singing his own sad *requiem*.' Mr. Orger, however, must be convinced that we are not unnecessarily severe; and we have great hopes that he will so profit by our advice, or rather by his own improved judgment, as finally to present the literary world with a classical version of Ovid.—We have dwelt so long on the 2d, 3d, and 4th numbers of this translation, that we must be comparatively brief in our survey of the 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th.

The story of Perseus proceeds with the 5th book of the Metamorphoses; and we have not much to commend or to censure in Mr. Orger's version. When he describes, indeed, the followers of Phineus as converted by Medusa's head into 'a regiment of stone,' he forgets that he is writing a translation, not an imitation, and is, therefore, or ought to be, restrained from the use of words that are expressive of modern ideas. 'From off his roof,' in the relation of the Muse which succeeds, is a vulgarism; and in her account of the grief of Ceres for the loss of Proserpine, several personifications (such as 'Murder' and 'Famine') are introduced into the version, which find no place in the original. Let us warn Mr. Orger against this propensity; especially when exercised in giving a "local habitation and a name" to some particular species of mental quality. This is a sort of metaphysical poetry very little known to the ancients. Mr. Orger has personified 'Caution,' for instance. To personify *Prudence* might be classical enough: but we do not recollect this *part of Prudence* being made a Divinity by either the Greeks or the Romans.

'Devoid of eddy' is a vile translation of "*sine vertice*," in the description of the Stymphean stream; and we should have noticed before, in the Rape of Proserpine, the unmeaning phrase of the island of Sicily being 'riven aside' by Pluto's descent.

In our slight sketch of the contents of the sixth book, we can only bestow some general praise on the story of Niobe, and remark a blemish or two in the wanderings of Latona and the fate of Philomela.—The discourteous rustics, afterward transformed into frogs, are described as disturbing the water at which Latona was eager to allay her thirst;

"*Huc illuc limum saltu movere maligno;*"

which line adroitly overcomes the difficulty of making so coarse an image poetical, by the general expression *movere*. Mr. Orger, by becoming particular, becomes ridiculous:

'And, in mere malice, kick up clouds of mud.'

"*Saliunt limoso in gurgite*" is also absurdly rendered by 'gambol in the bogs.'

'Another of the idiot Satyr (Satyre) rips
For contest on the wax-united pipe.'

Mr. Orger is either fond of odd *Darwinian* rhymes, or has an occasional difficulty in finding others, very unlike the *seeming* facility with which he generally composes.

'They capp'd with ivory the vacant *span*,
And thenceforth Pelops walk'd a perfect man ;'

This couplet has a flatness about it that is not easily defined, but is very easily felt. *Span* is obviously improper.

'Love gilds his speech, and when his accents lose
Discretion's garb,' &c.

This is very gratuitous, and wholly unlike the original :

"*Facundum faciebat amor — Cupidoque revertitur ore,*" &c.

How often do the modern translators fancy that it is necessary to be extravagant in their expressions, and to outrage the simple force and dignity of the antient writers ! What can be worse than the following translation of so plain a phrase as "*Intendens palmas ?*"

—— 'Holding forth her hands in frantic *stretch*,'

unless it be the total misconception of the original, at line 563. of the text, and line 734. of the translation. Ovid, to express the harden'd cruelty of Tereus, after the mutilation of Philomela, says,

"*Sustinet ad Progen post talia facta reverti ;*" —

'To Prognè soon returns, with downcast mien,
The King. Say, where's my sister ? cries *the Queen* ;'

and we know not which to admire most in this couplet ; the total loss of the forcible meaning of *sustinet*, or the *perversion* (for it is not the *version*) of "*Conjuge qua viso germanam querit*" into — 'Say, where's my sister ? cries the Queen ;' or the antithesis of '*the King*,' at the beginning of the verse, to '*the Queen*,' at the end. Nor is Mr. Orger happier in his rendering of the metamorphose, when the said King is converted into a Lapwing. Ovid gives him an "*immodicum rostrum*," which the translator burlesques into an 'endless beak.' Omitting these minor errors for the present, and only cautioning the author, (however familiar Shakspeare may be to his ears,) that in classical poetry *Hécâtè* should be a trisyllable, we shall select Medea's incantation from the 7th book, and close our remarks. The following passage, in our opinion, does much credit to Mr. Orger :

'Now

Now when chaste Cynthia, with majestic glow,
 Pour'd her full radiance on the earth below,
 Cheerless, alone forth stalk'd the royal fair,
 Loose her attire, her feet, her shoulders bare;
 Light on her neck her unbound locks were cast,
 And brooding night frown'd o'er her as she past.
 Now balmy sleep had every eye-lid clos'd,
 Man, bird, and beast in mimic death repos'd,
 No murmuring sound disturb'd the tranquil vale,
 Still hung the leaves, and mute the humid gale,
 Bright shone the stars; to these her hands she spread,
 With water from the stream thrice bath'd her head,
 Thrice turn'd her round, and with three direful yells,
 Thus, on bent knee, pour'd forth her mystic spells:
 Night, faithful Goddess, solemn and serene!
 Ye golden stars, who with your silver quoes
 Supplant the Sun! Great Hecate, three-form'd maid,
 Who shin'st propitious to thy votary's aid!
 Ye spells, and magic arts! and thou, O Earth,
 Whose verdant plants first gave that magic birth!
 Ye winds, lakes, rivers, rocks that seek the skies,
 Gods of the groves, and Gods of night, arise!
 Oft, by your aid, my voice terrific chides
 Back thro' their wandering banks returning tides;
 Where'er I chaunt my dirge, the deadly strain
 Ruffles the smooth, and smoothes the ruffled main;
 Clouds, at my potent bidding, rise and fall,
 And now I banish winds, and now recall;
 With speech and song I alter Nature's laws,
 Tear up the oak, and rend the serpent's jaws;
 Heav'd from their base, impending rocks I break,
 Upturn whole woods, and bid whole mountains shake;
 While nodding Earth lays bare her lurid caves,
 And buried ghosts start shuddering from their graves.
 Thee, Luna, too, my midnight spells draw down;
 Tho' tinkling cymbals strive my song to drown;
 My incantations tinge with pale dismay
 Morn's purple roses, and the car of day.
 Ye tam'd for me the fiery bulls, and broke
 Their brawny necks subservient to the yoke;
 Ye slew the dragon's sons by martial blows,
 Ye hush'd the scaly serpent in repose,
 Deceiv'd the guardian of the golden fleece,
 And safe consign'd the precious charge to Greece,
 Herbs I demand, of potent juice, to bring
 Back to cold Winter's cheek the rose of spring:
 And ye will grant them; yonder glittering star
 Shines not in vain, yon dragon-harness'd car
 Floats on no idle embassy on high:
 And as she spoke, a chariot gras'd the sky.'

The 7th number contains, among other tales, the story of Baucis and Philemon. Some lines in Mr. Orger's version are most unnecessarily added to the original, and, although much is good, too large a part is indifferent.

In the 8th number we discover nearly the same faults, and a similar degree of merit. Many passages are very well executed, and others are excessively feeble and unpoetical. Quantity is again occasionally violated, and meaning sought in vain. For instance, we have Dejānira instead of Dējānira, repeatedly; Cállírhōē must be pronounced as a trisyllable for the sake of the verse, line 537.; Cŷānēē is turned into Cŷānē; and, as to unintelligibility, we scarcely recollect a couplet that will vie with the subjoined:—Alcmena,

‘viewing Iolē with procreant yoke,
Conspicent labour, thus foreboding spoke;’

while, with regard to oddity and awkwardness of rhyme, the following distich is singular indeed:

‘No thought of kindred your alliance stops,
Jove weds with Juno, Saturn weds with Ops.’

All these are blemishes easily removed by care and attention; and on the whole we are disposed to part with Mr. Orger in very good humour.

Art. IV. *Sketches of the present Manners, Customs, and Scenery of Scotland*, with incidental Remarks on the Scottish Character. By Elizabeth Isabella Spence, Author of *Summer Excursions*, *The Nobility of the Heart*, *The Wedding Day*, &c. Second Edition, 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

“A TOUR in Scotland” is a tale so often told as to require, in any new book on the subject, the possession of something striking and unequal, in order to intitle it to a share of the public attention. Yet we are induced, without ascribing merit of this kind to Miss Spence's work, to insert a rather copious account of it in our pages, with the expectation that it will amuse those whom it does not instruct, and that its plain unaffected diction will gratify those who look for neither statistics nor philosophy at the hand of a lady. Our readers, on turning to the short notice which we gave (Vol. lix. p. 321.) of a juvenile production by this writer, will observe that our chief censure was directed to inaccuracies of language. A similar charge, as will be seen presently, is applicable to this Caledonian excursion: but, as the fair author is now more matured in her views, and the subject is of a graver cast than “the Wedding Day,” it is our intention to pay her, on the pre-

sent occasion, the compliment of a longer examination. She concludes her book by a conditional promise of a second tour into the north, to be followed by a second publication: a project which makes it of more consequence to give the reader some idea of what he is to expect, as well as to convey to her any animadversions which the reading of the present performance may suggest to us.

After a preface expressed in a style of rather higher pretension than the rest of the volumes, Miss S. proceeds with her narrative, conveyed in the old form of letters to a friend. Her route was from London to the western border, by the way of Northampton, Leicester, Preston, Lancaster, Kendal, Penrith, and Carlisle. When she had passed Leicester, she turned aside to visit the rocks of Dovedale; and though the views there are very contracted in extent, she was greatly struck with the romantic beauty of the dale, and of the crystal stream which bubbles at the foot of the rocks. Some of these rocks are of grey stone, and naked to their summits; while others are covered with lichens, ash, yew, and wild pear-trees. Many of them are of pyramidal and spiral shapes, bearing names characteristic of their whimsical figures. Proceeding northward, she was gratified by the beauty of the approach to Preston, and still more by the prospect of Lancaster. Having entered the castle of Lancaster, of which the spacious inclosure is the receptacle for both the debtors and the culprits of one of our most populous counties, she observed with satisfaction the purity of the air, the clearness of the cells, and the salutary habits of industry which are imposed on the prisoners. She saw the apartments allotted for weaving, and was assured that many of the prisoners confined for petty offences became afterward useful members of society. Leaving Lancaster, and approaching Kendal, she entered on a scenery of a bolder cast; the gentle hills of the south being now exchanged for lofty and picturesque mountains. To forego a visit to Windermere, though it was somewhat out of her way, would have been a self-denial which she could not impose on herself. The route which she took was by Bowness, and she recommends the same course to those who wish to view the lake along its whole extent. The day was calm; and, on being rowed over this transparent water, Miss Spence could see distinctly the pebbly bottom at a depth of fifty feet. Here, as on the lake of Keswick, it is on landing at the islands that the enraptured stranger becomes most sensible of the beauty of the surrounding scene. The lake, in either case, spreads its waters around, clear as a mirror; while the enchanting villas on the borders, and the magnificent amphitheatre of
moun-

mountains, form a picture which surpasses the most sanguine anticipations of fancy.

On crossing the border, Miss Spence takes some notice of the immediate change in the habits of the people and the aspect of their dwellings, but is by no means sufficiently explicit on this curious point. Two hundred years of pacific intercourse have done much less towards assimilating the respective frontiers, than would be supposed by persons who had not actually visited the border-line. On the well-built town of Dumfries, situated near the banks of the "winding Nith," Miss Spence bestows the same encomiums that were passed on it forty years ago by Dr. Smollett. Her partiality to the poetry of Burns leads her to make an elaborate effort to exculpate his memory from the heavy charge of intemperate and profligate habits, but the testimony of his townsmen of Dumfries supplied no corroboration to this well meant effort.

Having crossed the dreary hills on the Sanquhar road, the bustling streets of Glasgow afforded Miss Spence a welcome contrast, and revived the recollection of the British metropolis. The recency of her observations gives here, as in other parts, considerable interest to her detail. She admired the elegance of the Glasgow theatre, the magnificence of the infirmary, and the venerable aspect of the cathedral, one of the few religious edifices in Scotland which escaped destruction at the Reformation. From Glasgow, she made several excursions to the neighbouring towns.

'July 17. 1810. — This day was spent at Paisley, with an intention to view its manufactories. Paisley was formerly celebrated for coarse chequered linen cloth, afterwards for those of a lighter fabric, fancifully ornamented. Its thread has long been famous; and the introduction of the manufactory of silk gauze is an imitation of Spitalfields: every mean-looking habitation was filled with looms. In some houses young women were seated at frames, tambouring muslin, and the ingenuity of clipping the woven muslin into flowers, by groups of children engaged in this branch, and the rapidity with which they used the scissors, surprised me extremely.' —

'The ride from Glasgow to Paisley is on a very cheerful as well as interesting road.' —

'Numerous are the spots in Scotland which have some connexion with the life of Queen Mary. Cruickstone Castle, to which beautiful retreat she withdrew with Darnley, is situated about three miles from Paisley.' — 'The yew-tree is shewn, beneath which she spent many hours with him.' — 'Two miles beyond Glasgow, on an eminence, is Langside, where she was defeated after her escape from Lochleven. It was here she stood to view, in painful agitation, wrought almost to agony between the suspension of hope and fear, the unhappy termination of a battle so fatal to her interests and her power, and fled thence in wild despair, a fugitive and defeated queen, from her country for ever.' —

'Not

‘ Not far distant from Paisley is Ellerslie, remarkable for being the birth-place of the renowned and heroic Sir William Wallace.’ →

‘ *Hamilton, July 18.*

‘ From Lanark I walked by a steep descent into the dale, where amidst the wildest scenery, commerce seemed to have sprung up, and industry to have fixed her thousand wheels, to enrich with her useful hand the poor and indigent. The magnificent stone buildings, three in number, of Mr. Owen’s cotton mills, must inspire all strangers with a sensation of pleasure and surprize, when they first perceive them. The order, the regularity, the clean, the healthful appearance of the children, the rapidity of their little fingers in their different employments, and the very ingenious mechanism of these mills, present a scene so novel and so pleasing, that when its great utility is considered, it is impossible not to attach the highest praise to the first projector of so important a concern; and although manufactories have sometimes been thought destructive to the health and morals of women and children, yet in this instance it is by no means the case. The children here have clean and wholesome apartments allotted to them. They are washed, combed, neatly drest, and after the employment of the day is over, a portion of the evening is devoted to instruction in reading and writing. The very hills which surround them breathe health; and the valleys are watered by so fine a river, that sickness with its withering hand seems banished from this industrious little territory.’ —

‘ *July 19.* — From the busy din of Mr. Owen’s cotton mills, I proceeded above the deep and woody glen which overhangs them; and directed my steps by the edge of a precipice overshadowed by dark and luxuriant woods, noble and varied, which led me to the Corra Linn. — All here was perfectly serene, except the tremendous roar of the cataract pouring down the perpendicular rock, which is eighty-four feet in height: it is broken in its progress by three different falls, which divest it of the terrific grandeur it would otherwise possess. — The Corra Linn smokes like a caldron, in consequence of the precipitate fall of water. On the opposite rock the ruin of Corra Castle appears, proudly seated on its summit. — Leaving the grand scenery of Corra Linn, I next viewed that of Bonniton; more sublimely awful, in my opinion, from the water-fall presenting one precipitate, tremendous, and unbroken volume of water, thundering amidst the rocks over which it hurries in a foaming torrent.

‘ Taking leave of these falls I returned to Lanark, and visited Cartland Craigs, a place I was very anxious to see, having been the retreat of Wallace in perilous times. This scenery far surpasses in wild magnificence that of Corra and Bonniton Linn. Here nature has done every thing to form the awful and sublime; as far as the most savage grandeur can extend, Cartland Craigs possess it. It was terrific as I passed along this gloomy solitude to look down on the fearful chasm below, which is four hundred and thirty feet in depth, from where I stood. This craig, or huge precipitous rock, richly fringed with coppice wood, extends at least three miles in length, far from any human retreat, and frowns upon the wanderer, who boldly
dare,

dares to invade its solitude.'—'Every feathered songstress seemed fled, as if affrighted by those birds of prey which nestle amidst these stupendous crags. The only sound I heard was my own voice reverberated from rock to rock, for there is a distinct echo, which could be rendered as beautiful as the sound of music.'—

'July 21.—The country people of Scotland are in general extremely inquisitive; and though they seldom give a very direct or laconic answer; the presence of strangers excites in them an eager curiosity to know whence they came, what is their pursuit, and whither they are going. The manners too of the common people, though civil and marked with good nature, are sometimes less ceremonious than in parts of England: their children, when a stranger is passing through the villages, seldom drop a curtesy. The want of gardens before the cottages deprives them of that social aspect which marks the habitations of the industrious.'—

'July 24.—Yesterday I went into some of the cottages near Craigbarnet; they were built of mud, with thatched roofs; before the door were a dirty puddle for ducks, a littered entry, and no path-way to approach by. It is with too much truth, Mrs. Hamilton describes the want of neatness in the Scotch peasantry. These habitations were constituted of what are called a *but* and a *ben*—a kitchen and sleeping-room, which forms parlour, chamber, place for cooking, in short, for every thing; and another compartment, which is generally used as a cow-house, stable, &c. The chief light admitted was from the door; for the window was so small and choaked up, that it was not possible to see out of it, and a wide hole in the roof formed the chimney, which drew down a sufficient quantity of smoke and air—the latter highly requisite to prevent suffocation. This miserable dwelling was neither lathed nor plastered, and had no other roof than the sticks, which supported the straw, perfectly black, from being smoke-dried. The floor was earthen, with several puddles in it, where the chickens and ducks were picking up what they could find. The beds in Scotland are a sort of wooden press, fixed in a hole in the wall; this sort of bed is universal in all the cottages, nay often in the better sort of farm-houses.'

Miss Spence also made a short tour into the West Highlands, proceeding in the first place to Dumbarton and the new watering place of Helensburgh, situated towards the mouth of the Clyde, and which joins to the advantage of sea-bathing an easy access to the romantic scenery of Lochlomond. She hired one of the small chaises that are kept at Helensburgh for the accommodation of the visitors of the Highlands, and directed her course through the wild mountains which lead to the solitary inn of Aroquabar. Truly may she observe, (Vol. i. p. 167.) that those who are strangers to mountain-scenery can form no idea through what a region she journeyed. The dark and apparently inaccessible summits of these stupendous masses seem to frown on the wondering traveller, and to threaten to shut him out from

from the rest of the world. On one side of the road, is the beautiful water of Loch Long, transparent, like Windermere, to the bottom; on the other, are deep and melancholy woods. From Aroquhar, Miss Spence proceeded to Lochlomond, and stopped at the small sequestered town of Luss, a spot particularly calculated for pensive contemplation. From an adjoining hill, she had an extensive view of Lochlomond, and counted sixteen islands on its broad expanse. In grandeur, she admits that it surpasses Windermere, but in beauty, and particularly in cheerfulness of aspect, the English lake is greatly superior. The weather in which she visited each seemed to be in correspondence with their respective characteristics: when on the water of Windermere, all was still and tranquil, but, while traversing Lochlomond, the atmosphere was illuminated by lightning, and distant peals of thunder rolled from mountain to mountain.—Turning her course to the southward, she had an opportunity of admiring the perpendicular rock of Dumbarton, consisting of basaltic columns ranged one above another, and rising apparently out of the waters of the Clyde. In this neighbourhood, at the village of Renton, she was gratified with a sight of the column erected to Dr. Smollett near his native place. She pays a tribute to many characters of note as she passes the scene of their birth: but Wallace is her favourite, and no opportunity is omitted of introducing his daring exploits, whether performed in a desultory warfare in Lanarkshire or in scaling the seemingly impregnable walls of Dumbarton. Her attention was particularly awakened by the spot, about three miles distant from Glasgow, at which he was treacherously apprehended, and hurried off in chains to the English border.

Being a native of Scotland, and having relations in various parts of the country, Miss Spence was induced to prolong her stay at several retired places, which escape the notice of those travellers who direct their chief attention to the towns along the high road. It is to this circumstance that we owe her account of Dunkeld and Taymouth.

** Dunkeld, August 21.*

‘I had long entertained a wish to visit Dunkeld, and find in my native place a melancholy pleasure in viewing scenes hitherto unknown to me. There is a romantic air attached to every Highland spot, different from any other, and this one is singularly beautiful.’—

‘Dunkeld lies so beautifully scattered on the banks of the river, with its fine bridge, lofty mountains, luxuriant and sombre looking woods, as to render it most attractive from its romantic situation and picturesque scenery.’

‘The gloom of Dunkeld seems to be suited to the pensive character of the Athol Highlanders, who are a people very distinct, both from the more remote Highlanders, and from the natives of the low country.’

country.' — 'Though their valleys abound in all sylvan and pastoral beauty, their mountains are bare, and devoid of pasturage; and their country is walled in by distinct and almost impassable boundaries. Hence they are forced to be more stationary than the interior Highlanders, who range during the summer over a wide extent of mountains, and removing to different habitations, at different seasons of the year, are enabled to indulge more of the wild peculiarities that marked the manners of their ancestors.' — 'The scenery of Dunkeld is greatly embellished by the Duke of Athol's magnificent grounds, which embrace a romantic combination of the sublime and beautiful. Inviting walks are formed on the borders of the Tay, which are overshadowed by high trees; and on the opposite side of the river, the naked and rocky hills, which almost touch the heavens, give a grandeur to these polished lawns and walks, which really exceed in beauty all description. The hermitage, or what is called Ossian's Hall, is buried in trees, on an elevated situation, whence is seen the river Bran impetuously precipitating itself through the declivities of the rocks, and forming a natural cascade. This fall is not so high as those on the Clyde; yet when reflected by the various mirrors which are placed in the hall, the effect is almost magical.

'The hall of Ossian displays the Celtic bard singing some of his heroic tales to a group of females, who are listening to his strains. This picture, on being drawn aside, presents not a rustic temple, the residence, one would suppose, of the wood nymphs, who haunt these shades; but an elegant saloon, more appropriate to the fashionable females of a midnight city ball, than to such a rural place.' —

'Kenmore, August 23.'

'It is necessary to make the Lowlands the first part of a tour into Scotland, if they are to be viewed to any advantage. To describe the enthusiastic delight which fills and elevates the mind, as the magnificent scenery of rocks, mountains, woods, and rivers, spread into the finest landscapes, one after another, to meet the eye, is impossible; and Scotland as far exceeds Wales, as Switzerland, no doubt, exceeds Scotland. I yesterday thought nothing could surpass the romantic wildness and picturesque scenery of the Duke of Athol's at Dunkeld; but to day, as the grandeur of Taymouth unfolded itself, I was undeceived. To behold woods of the most luxuriant growth almost touching the heavens, and springing from huge and perpendicular heights, with the beautiful Tay meandering at their feet, astonishes even the traveller who goes in quest of such scenes.' —

'August 24. — Embosomed in this wild solitude, stands the superb castle of Lord Braidalbane, now almost completed. The pleasure-grounds are embellished in the first style of elegant taste. Velvet walks are formed on the banks of the rapid Tay, which Pennant justly remarks, from its pellucidness, and yet dark colour, looks like "brown crystal." — "At a short distance from his Lordship's seat, scattered on the greensward, are the few white houses, and picturesque church, which form the peaceful village of Keamore; standing on a promontory, boldly jutting into the lake, with an ample bay, and an elegant stone bridge thrown over the Tay, whose gentle waters meet and unite themselves with the lake. A small island, tufted

tufted with trees, shades the ruins of what was once a priory ; and the mountain-scenery is here as magnificent as it is wild and inaccessible. The castle Lord Braidalbane is building will be, when finished, extremely magnificent. The style is of the old Gothic architecture, and the form resembles that of Inverary.'

Miss Spence's relations having come originally from Aberdeen, a visit to that city leads to an account of them, which would have been too long for a printed work, had not the persons described been, in some measure, public characters. The family name was Fordyce ; and David, the professor of moral philosophy in Marischal College, Aberdeen, and author of the "Dialogues on Education," was her uncle. Another uncle, James, was well known in London, having been many years minister of Monkwell-street chapel, and remarkable for attracting the attention of his hearers by impressive elocution. Of his celebrated "Discourses to Young Women," a brief outline is given in Miss Spence's second volume. (P. 84.) It was observed of him that his pronunciation in the pulpit was such as to afford an example of the practicability of a native of North Britain entirely overcoming the peculiarity of original accent.

From Aberdeen, the most northern of our seats of learning, we may soon, it appears, expect a new version of Ossian's poems.

Aberdeen, September 4.

' In Old Aberdeen, Mr. Maclachlan, assistant schoolmaster, a young man of great genius and learning, has translated the Iliad of Homer into Gaelic heroic verse. Many parts of this translation have been circulated in Badenoch, through the dreary wilds of which country he has caused the strains of the Grecian bard to resound, as those of Ossian did in days of yore. Mr. Maclachlan is now employed in making a new translation of Ossian's poems ; which, it is to be hoped, will furnish an additional proof of their authenticity, and exhibit them in a less florid dress than Macpherson has done. The investigations now conducting under the Highland Society of Scotland will probably terminate in bringing to view new and striking proofs of their authenticity. They seem to have been collected from an old tradition, and put together by Mr. Macpherson according to his own judgment and taste ; and he has supplied from his own imagination what he supposed necessary to connect them into a whole.'

In the course of her travels, Miss Spence twice visited Stirling, and was delighted with the rich and extensive prospect from its antient castle. When so near the scene of memorable combats, she availed herself of the opportunity of visiting them ; having twice crossed the plain of Bannockburn, and even ventured to repair to *Graham's Moor*, near Falkirk, on which her imprudent countrymen, flushed with the success
of

of their irregular warfare, committed the folly of encountering, on open ground, the well disciplined army of Edward I. A contest of a different kind, and more fresh in the recollection of many of our readers, is described to have taken place at no great distance from Stirling; we mean the single combat of "Coilantogle-ford," and the encounter between "Chanalpine and the Lowland might," in the celebrated glen of the Trossachs. These scenes also were visited by Miss Spence :

Callander, August 15.

'The stage from Stirling to Callander may surely be considered the garden of Scotland; for every object is gay, pastoral and beautiful. There is not one scene to excite gloom, but every thing is formed to enliven and delight with its smiling and pleasing aspect.'

'The ruinous castle of Downe, shaded by woods amid which the sparkling Forth hurries its rapid waters in mournful music, is a fine object. It is a huge square building, and stands on a gentle elevation at the confluence of the Teath and the Ardoch.' — 'The village of Downe, not far removed, consists of one principal street which divides two smaller ones.

'Callander, buried in hills, secretly reposes at the foot of Benledi; and notwithstanding the melancholy green of the fir trees which crown the summit of the craig of Callander to the north, sweep along its base, and overtop the village, yet it has a cheerful aspect.'

'Here again the beautiful Teath presents itself: I never beheld a more rapid, lively, and fine river; it winds in a thousand picturesque forms.'

'I am just, dear Madam, setting out to visit the Trossachs, but I would advise every stranger either to engage a chaise at Stirling for the time they intend to be absent, or write previously to Mr. M'Gregor, at the inn at Callander, or they may be disappointed in being conveyed thither. So many persons are now attracted to this *far-famed* spot, in consequence of Mr. Walter Scott's beautiful poem of "The Lady of the Lake," as to exceed all calculation; the number of carriages which have stopped at this place during the present season, already exceeds five hundred.'

'*August 16.* — Verbal descriptions of places, however animated and copious, rarely or never enable the mind to form adequate conceptions of the originals. This remark is particularly applicable to the Trossachs; and even Mr. Walter Scott, who, in his rich descriptions, paints with poetical imagery like a Salvator Rosa, or a Claude Lorraine, falls infinitely short in depicting the sublimity of this scenery. No painter, no poet can ever bring before the eyes or imagination of those who have not been themselves spectators, what are the diversity and grandeur of these astonishing scenes. —

'Proceeding from Callander, the mountains range themselves in such wild magnificence, and rise in such abrupt and rugged forms, with dark woods spreading over their summits, and sweeping into the broad glittering rivers and lakes, which rapidly succeed one another, it is impossible to pourtray their grandeur and beauty. The figures of these mountains are so varied, grotesque, wild, inaccessible,

pointing

pointing their tops to the heavens where not shrouded in clouds, as to create a region of their own, beyond which there seems no possibility of passing. The disposition of the woody scenery is pre-eminently beautiful; the birch trees hang their elegant and weeping branches in pensile loveliness over the rocks, peeping in rude fragments from amidst the various trees, which soften and adorn their native wildness. Such are the Trossachs for ten miles.'—

'The first lake which presented itself between Callander and the Trossachs, was the transparent water of Loch Venacher, the *Lake of the Fair Valley*, at whose verge the carriage wound between it and so narrow a pass of mountainous rocks to the right, as often to endanger being plunged into its watery bed. Towering above this beautiful lake, the high summit of Benledi appears.—Passing the romantic bridge of Turk, the scenery becomes more sylvan, and softens into woody banks on the edge of *Loch Achray*, beyond which is the *field of devotion*. On the right there is a distant view of the forest of Glenfinlas, filled with the deer which in ancient times belonged to the Kings of Scotland; and adjacent was a field for tilts and tournaments.'—

'Loch Catherine, when first seen in full expanse, assumes the form of a bay. The rocks, ranging themselves in an amphitheatre covered with woods, and island beyond island emerging from the lake, with mountains more wild in their appearance than it is possible to describe.'—

'The den of the Ghosts is directly opposite to *Rough Island*; and is an abyss of rocks and woods, most awfully grand, on the south side of the lake. In Gaelic it is called *Coir-nan-aire skin*. *Coir* is expressive of a cauldron laid on its side, being a deep valley closed at one end. These dark hideous shelving rocks, of an immense breadth, piled one above another, afford an abode to foxes, wild cats, and badgers.'—

'The lochs Catherine and Ness are never frozen beyond a few fathoms from the margin, where the water is shallow. This fact was long accounted wonderful, and attributed to some peculiar quality of the water; but the water of Loch Catherine differs in no respect from other fresh water; and the water of both lakes freezes as quickly as any other water when exposed in separate vessels. The phenomenon of the lakes themselves never being frozen over, is easily and completely accounted for, by the discoveries of modern chemistry.

'Water, like most other bodies, is expanded by heat, and condensed, or contracted in volume by cold; but there is this peculiarity in the effects of heat or cold on water, that water is gradually condensed by cold, until it arrives *within a few degrees* of the freezing point, when it begins to be again gradually dilated; and when it reaches the freezing point, it expands with violence. This being the case, water in very deep lakes can never be frozen in such climates as ours. When the upper stratum is condensed in its progress towards freezing, it becomes, of course, specifically heavier than the strata below it, and sinks down towards the bottom. What was the second stratum, now becomes the uppermost, is condensed in its turn, becomes specifically heavier, and sinks down as the first sunk. All

the strata in the lake must necessarily go through the same process, sinking and rising alternately before congelation can take place; but where the water, as in Loch Catherine, is one hundred and thirty fathoms deep, the uppermost strata receive their original temperature long before they reach the bottom, rise again in their turn, and in such climates as ours, the process goes on for ever, and prevents actual congelation.

‘The torrents of rain, which descended in going to the Trossachs, certainly added to the awful grandeur of the scenery; for the clouds sometimes swept over the mountains, then encircled them in all their majestic wildness, and the sun beams every now and then gleaming on their sides, and playing on the surface, of the glittering lakes, with hundreds of silver streams pouring in tremendous noise down them, only exceeded by the heavy peals of thunder echoing from mountain to mountain, were so sublimely fine, as scarcely to make travellers wish for a more tranquil day; for the variableness of the weather did not deter several others from visiting the Trossachs; and it was pleasant, in so sequestered and wild a place, to be hailed by those, who, like myself, had journeyed from their country and their home, to gaze upon the magical wonders of the now celebrated Loch Catherine.’

It now remains for us to pronounce an opinion on the merits of this tour as a composition; and having premised that the extracts which we have given are calculated to exhibit a favourable specimen of Miss Spence's authorship, we may be allowed, without the charge of harshness, to be rather free in our concluding animadversions. Small as these volumes are, either the author or the printer has contrived to introduce into them an extraordinary proportion of blunders. Even in the few letters which occur before the fair writer leaves English ground, the number of trespasses is considerable. What traveller has heard of the Seine at Lancaster, or of the distance from Kendal to Penrith being only a stage of ten miles? We have here also Bolton for Burton, and Dr. Paisley for Dr. Paley; inaccuracies the more remarkable because the present is a second edition. From Dumfries, Miss Spence writes that the Nith derives its name from “*nitidus, crooked*,” a signification for which it would puzzle our deepest-read-scholars to produce an authority. In the progress northward, we find a recurrence of similar aberrations: ‘Finglen’ is written for Finhaaln, and Brechin Castle is termed the property of the Hon. Mr. M., as if there were an impropriety in openly affixing Mr. Maule's name to his well known residence. We scarcely expected a literary lady to say (Vol. ii. p. 56.) that ‘Aberdeen was the first city King Charles II. arrived at on his restoration,’ and we cannot subscribe to her accuracy in asserting (Vol. i. p. 67.) that, ‘from the temperature of the climate, vegetation at Dumfries was two or three weeks more forward than in Lancashire.’

To this list of animadversions we must add the charge of transgressions against grammar, arising generally (as Vol. i. p. 210.) from the sentences running into length and intricacy. If Miss Spence perseveres in her promised plan of favouring us with a second tour into Caledonia, we hope to meet with no such composition as the following, Vol. i. p. 48., 'The source of the Nith is in the parish of Cummoche, and *discharges itself*;' &c.; or (p. 193.) 'The church of St. Ninians was employed as a powder magazine by the Pretender in 1745. *It is an old town*,' &c. But we suspend our comments;—enough has been said to satisfy our readers that, while this "Caledonian Excursion" may justly be termed a pleasant little sketch, it stands in no small need of revision and correction.

ART. V. *Cases of Apoplexy and Lethargy*: with Observations upon the Comatose Diseases. By J. Cheyne, M.D., &c. &c. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Underwood. 1812.

WE are already so well acquainted with Dr. Cheyne's merits as a candid and faithful historian of the phænomena of disease, that we take up any new production of his pen with much interest; and the subject chosen for his present work required farther illustration, the physiology of it being obscure, and the practice in it wavering and uncertain. Under the head of Apoplexy, we are in the habit of placing a number of diseases that differ considerably in their symptoms, and probably in their nature and tendency; and respecting those cases which are more decidedly apoplectic, opposite modes of treatment have been adopted by the most eminent practitioners. On each of these points, both the nosology and the cure of the class of diseases to which Dr. Cheyne has directed his attention, we think that he has afforded us some valuable additions to our stock of knowledge.

The work may be viewed as consisting of three parts. In the first, the symptoms and history of the disease are detailed; the morbid state of the brain is examined; the propriety of the division of apoplexy into the two species, the sanguineous and the serous, is considered; and the whole is illustrated by comparing the previous history of the symptoms with the derangement of the parts actually existing after death. The second part is devoted to the treatment of apoplexy; the different remedies which have been proposed being successively brought into view, and the arguments employed by their advocates or their opponents being candidly examined. The next and most bulky part is composed of the history of individual cases,

with the appearances on dissection; and to this is subjoined an ample commentary.

The description of the apoplectic attack, at its commencement and during its continuance, until it terminates in death, or in a kind of partial and imperfect recovery, is drawn up with much characteristic accuracy; and the varieties of the disease, as affecting different constitutions, are happily pourtrayed. We observe, however, less of novelty in this part than in 'the anatomy of apoplexy,' in which the appearances of the brain are minutely described in all its parts, as they successively present themselves to the dissector. The Doctor concludes his examination by the following 'summary of the most important of these appearances,' in what he conceives to be the order of their importance:

'I mention first, the remains of an excited state of the minute arteries of the brain and its membranes, this probably being the most important, as it is the most unvarying appearance; then the extravasation of blood, probably the consequence of the excited state of the vessels; the turgescence of the venous system: the enlargement of the ventricles, partial or general; and, lastly, the serous effusion which is generally found in various parts of the brain, and which would seem to imply previous absorption of the brain.'

It is remarked that the liver of apoplectics is often unsound, exhibiting that kind of disorganization which arises from excess in the use of spirits. The brain and the liver are the only parts of the body which appear to have any necessary connection with the apoplectic state.

In a section intitled 'Observations on the diseased Appearances,' Dr. Cheyne enters into a consideration of the different hypotheses that have been formed to account for apoplexy; or rather to connect the diseased appearances, as exhibited on dissection, with the preconceived physiological opinions of the several writers. He presents us with a brief review of all the leading doctrines, from Galen to Cullen; and we may fairly characterize them all as being founded on false principles, and inadequate to explain the phenomena. The opinions of Morgagni and Dr. Baillie, on account of the respect which attaches to their names, are combated more at length. The only conclusion that we can draw;—which is, however, a conclusion of great importance,—is that all cases of apoplexy are preceded by excitement of the vessels of the brain; and probably to this excitement the leading features of the disease may be referred.

The remarks on the treatment of apoplexy, which forms the subject of the next section, are confined to the three heads of blood-letting, emetics and purges, and external applications.

For

For the practice of bleeding, Dr. Cheyne is a most strenuous advocate ; and he takes great pains to consider all the objections which have been urged against it, and to repel their force. He observes ;

‘ Blood-letting is objected to, first by those who consider apoplexy simply a disease of indirect debility ; secondly, by those who consider paralysis the consequence, not so much of any diseased condition connected with or allied to apoplexy, as of the evacuations which are used to remove the fit ; and, thirdly, by those who consider that the attack may be symptomatic of serous, rather than of sanguineous apoplexy.’

The sum of the answer to these objections may be comprized in a few words, that dissections exhibit in all cases a state of increased activity of the vessels ; that this increase takes place in the serous as well as in the sanguineous species ; that the symptoms of disease, if not too far advanced, are frequently removed by bleeding ; and that, when this remedy has not been employed, the attack commonly runs on to a fatal termination. On the whole, we conceive that the use of evacuations in apoplexy is sufficiently established ; although it must be evident that, when the injury of the brain has actually been effected, even the most powerful remedies can be of little avail. We agree with Dr. Cheyne in his reprobation of emetics, as a general remedy in apoplexy. Of the effects of blisters and other external applications, he entertains no very favorable opinion ; and probably, without evacuations, they would be of little use.

The cases, which are given in the last part of the work, are 23 in number. They contain an account of the nature of the attack, the practice which was adopted, and the appearances after death ; which last are afterward made the subject of a commentary, forming altogether an extremely valuable body of information, both theoretical and practical. One important point is inculcated in this commentary, which must not be passed over without some notice. The author dissents from the opinion proposed by Cullen, and of late generally adopted, that all the comatose diseases are referable to one class ; and that lethargy, catalepsy, &c., are only degrees or modifications of epilepsy. We think that many of his remarks are founded on just observations, and we agree with him that, in extreme cases, these two kinds of diseases are sufficiently distinct from each other : yet at the same time they are so much connected, that it would be, in many instances, very difficult to draw the line of discrimination between them ; and it not unfrequently happens that the same case may in one stage appear to be apoplexy and in another to be lethargy. We are, however, glad that the subject is brought under discussion from so respectable a quarter, and we hope that it will be farther examined.

ART. VI. *Memoirs of the Kings of Spain of the House of Bourbon, from the Accession of Philip V. to the Death of Charles III., 1700 to 1788. Drawn from original and unpublished Documents. By William Coxe, M.A., F.R.S., F.S.A., Archdeacon of Wilts, and Rector of Bemerton. 3 Vols. 4to. Six Guineas. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.*

IF the high wages of labour and the heavy duties on paper have exceedingly enhanced the price of books, limited the diffusion of knowledge, and tended to confine it within the circle of the great and opulent, the evil is farther aggravated by the cupidity of authors and booksellers; who, in the prices which they charge for their works, in some instances, not only lose sight of the nature of their calling but violate the rules of just dealing. With regret we observe that the veteran writer before us, who to the profession of an author adds the rank of a church dignitary, has on the present occasion submitted to this reprehensible course. A hireling trafficker in literature could not have set a more extravagant price than that which is demanded for these slender quartos; one of which is eked out by an appendix, consisting of public documents that are neither rare nor of great value. Printed on common paper, the cost of the work is six guineas, (the *six* stupendous volumes of Gibbon fetched no more!) and on imperial paper, twelve guineas! Surely authors forget that the consideration which they enjoy is not owing to the lucrative nature of their calling, but to the importance and dignity of their functions as the depositaries and guardians of letters; on whom rests the high obligation to maintain our proudest claim to pre-eminence. How contemptible would they appear, if they were solely actuated by the spirit and maxims of mere traders? If such be the principles on which an author is resolved to act, let him not profane this noble occupation, but have recourse to a pursuit more congenial with his feelings. Men of such a stamp will never reach excellence, nor even attain mediocrity. Without a higher passion than the mere desire of gain, an *actor* cannot rise to the height of his profession; and a more noble feeling is indispensable to the *artist* who aspires to the first distinction in his line: but the *author* in whom the love of fame is not paramount belies his vocation, and prostitutes the rare and choice favours of nature with which he has been blessed.

Turning from this consideration, in which a fair and respectable name is thus implicated, let us proceed to the *Memoirs*; where we shall see it associated with qualities and services which impress the mind in a very different manner. In the work itself, his readers will find Mr. Coxe to be the same traveller, biographer, and historian, who engaged a large share of their
favour

favour on former occasions ; and they will discern the same unvarying energy, the same unremitting diligence, the same perspicuity, and the same sound judgment, which then recommended him. Indeed, one advantage places this performance above those which have preceded it ; the author is more master of his subject, and in consequence not only is his arrangement more happy, but his narrative is more lucid and pointed. If Mr. Coxe cannot lay claim to the higher excellences of historical composition, he is not a person who can bestow labour on a subject without deriving benefit from his exertions ; — he is not a student whom the greater consideration of a topic bewilders, and who, the longer he ponders over it, becomes more confused. In his history of the House of Austria, he had occasion to travel over the ground which the work before us again occupies ; and the effect of his second survey has been, as we have stated above, that the former production must yield to the present in arrangement and neatness of transition. These *Memoirs*, indeed, are perspicuous without being tedious, and concise without being obscure ; the incidents related in them arising out of each other, as in a well framed drama. Even that reader who is no critic will perceive the justness of this observation in the facility with which he accompanies the writer, and enters into the subject ; and he will find no want of more information than Mr. Coxe's pages supply, in order to obviate any difficulties which the events in detail may seem to create.

Amid the display with which, according to his usual manner, the author relates the favours done to him by the great, his sober readers will behold with surprize, and no small satisfaction, the long and interesting list of original materials which his industry has procured for his present work ; and which, in hands like his, cannot fail to render it, in a great degree, an original performance. Mr. Coxe thus speaks of them :

‘ With respect to manuscript-authorities, I trust, without incurring the imputation of vanity, I may boast, that for number, authenticity, and interest, they yield to none ever committed to the inspection of any individual writer. They comprise the diplomatic correspondence of the British government with the courts of Europe in general, during the greater part of the last century, of which I availed myself in composing the *Memoirs* of Sir Robert and Lord Walpole, and the *History* of the House of Austria ; the correspondence and papers of our ministers and agents in Spain ; and a great variety of plans, reports and communications, from numerous individuals, ether directly or indirectly connected with the British government.

‘ I shall proceed to specify the collections which I have principally consulted.

' The letters from Torcy and Harcourt, relating to the Testament of Charles the Second, in the Hardwicke Papers, to which I obtained access by the permission of my noble friend the Earl of Hardwicke, whose kindness I can never sufficiently acknowledge.

' I am indebted to my venerable friend H. P. Wyndham, Esq., late member for the county of Wilts, for the communication of the correspondence of Mr. Bubb Doddington, afterwards Earl of Melcombe, Envoy in Spain from 1714 to 1716. This has furnished rare and valuable information on the character, conduct, and designs of Alberoni; and has enabled me to place in a new and distinct point of view the short but brilliant period of his administration.

' Letters from Sir Luke Schaub and Earl Stanhope, both of whom were deputed to Madrid in 1717 and 1718, to prevent or suspend a rupture with Spain. — In the Hardwicke Papers.

' The diplomatic correspondence of Mr. William Stanhope, afterwards Earl of Harrington, during his missions in Spain, from 1722 to 1727. This furnishes many interesting particulars relative to the negotiation for the cession of Gibraltar; the abdication of Philip the Fifth; the short reign and death of his son Louis; the resumption of the crown by Philip; and the administration of Ripperda. Also his correspondence during his temporary mission in 1728 to conclude the treaty of Seville. — Principally in the Harrington Papers, for the communication of which I again beg leave to repeat my grateful acknowledgments to his grandson, the Earl of Harrington.

' Papers and documents relative to the rise, administration, and disgrace of Ripperda. Of these I may particularly specify the letters and communications of Platania and Caraccioli, two Sicilian Abbots, in high favour with Philip. Also the Papers and Reports of St. Saphorn, British agent at Vienna during the celebrated mission of Ripperda. — In the Walpole and Hardwicke Papers.

' Dispatches and communications from the French ambassadors at Madrid, during the intimate intercourse between the British and French governments in 1727 and 1728, among which I may distinguish those of Count Rottembourg. Also the letters of Louis the Fifteenth; the official instructions of the French government; the correspondence of Cardinal Fleury, with the King and Queen of Spain; and various notices relative to the court and cabinet of Madrid, communicated by him to Horatio, afterwards Lord Walpole, then British minister at Paris. — In the Walpole Papers.'

The importance of the next document induces us to insert the author's account of it, although it be rather diffuse, as it exhibits an example of diplomatic excellence in the person of a British subject, which is not perhaps of very frequent occurrence:

' From this period commences the interesting correspondence of Mr. afterwards Sir Benjamin Keene, who first filled the post of consul at Madrid, and subsequently of envoy plenipotentiary, from 1723 to 1742, and from 1749 till his death in 1757, when he was invested with the character of ambassador. It would be needless to enlarge on the advantage I have drawn from this unrivalled collection

in regard to the administrations of La Paz and Patiño; the causes of the war in 1742; and above all in narrating the life and reign of Ferdinand the Sixth, which are comparatively little known even to the Spaniards themselves. Lastly, this collection has furnished the interesting correspondence with Mr. Pitt, on the attempt to implicate Spain in the war against France, by the cession of Gibraltar. It has seldom been the lot of a public minister to fill so important a post as Sir Benjamin Keene, for so long a period of time, and with such general success; or to enjoy the honour of so intimate an intercourse with the sovereigns at whose court he resided.

'The late Earl of Hardwicke, who was an accurate judge of diplomatic merit, once purposed to publish an analysis of so valuable a portion of our diplomatic treasures; and thus spoke of Sir Benjamin Keene and his correspondence, in his intended Preface:

"Sir Benjamin Keene was remarkable for a thorough knowledge of the secret springs of the Spanish cabinet. The portraits he has drawn are singularly striking and descriptive; and the sketch he has left of Ferdinand the Sixth and his Queen Barbara; of the discordant characters of Carvajal and Ensenada; of the means which he employed to procure the disgrace of Ensenada, and the appointment of Wall, is the most interesting narrative of secret history that ever was given in the dispatches of any ambassador. He was a perfect master of the forms of business in Spain, and always negotiated with temper, firmness, and address. He never miscarried for want of laying his stress on the proper argument, or misapplying the mode of enforcing it.

"His skill in the Spanish language contributed greatly to the success of his negotiations. He knew how to accommodate himself to the circumstances of the times, and to adapt his conduct to the temper of the court in which he resided, and of the ministers with whom he negotiated. Such justice is now done to the memory of Sir Benjamin Keene, that a comparison with him carries with it the eulogium of any foreign minister."

'To the kindness of my friend Benjamin Keene, Esq., nephew of the ambassador, I owe the advantage of being able to present to the public the information contained in this interesting correspondence. Indeed it was this advantage which first encouraged me to undertake the composition of these Memoirs.'

Mr. Coxe then goes on to observe:

'To Frederic Nassau, Esq., I am indebted for the use of the diplomatic correspondence of the Earl of Rochford, who went to Madrid as ambassador in 1763, and continued till 1767. It contains many notices relative to the administrations of Squillaci and Grimaldi, to the memorable tumult at Madrid, to the insurrections in America, to the expulsion of the Jesuits, and to the negotiations with Grimaldi, on the American settlements, on the Manilla ransom, and on other matters of considerable interest.

'My grateful thanks are due to the Earl of Malmesbury, for the kind communication of his interesting papers, when chargé d'affaires at Madrid in 1770 and 1771, at the outset of his diplomatic career.

These

These documents shew the origin and arrangement of the dispute relative to Falkland's Islands, which was successfully terminated by his agency, and comprise many valuable hints, on the character of Charles the Third, on that of the prime minister Grimaldi, and on the state of the Spanish court and nation. From the same source, I derived various communications relative to the transactions of Spain with Russia, especially the armed neutrality, and the offer of purchasing the co-operation of Catherine the Second in the American war, by the cession of Minorca.

‘ To the kindness of Lord Grantham, I owe the obliging communication of the dispatches of his noble father Lord Grantham, during his embassy at Madrid from 1771 to 1779, a period of which the secret history is little known. From this valuable correspondence, I have drawn the most important information. It throws much light on the administration and retreat of D’Aranda, and on the causes which led to the resignation of Grimaldi, and the appointment of Florida Blanca. Lastly, it develops the motives which induced Charles the Third to join France in the American war, a measure so opposite to the real interests of Spain, as well as to his own professions and those of his minister. The collateral correspondence of Lord Rochford when Secretary of State, as well as of his successor Lord Weymouth, and of Lord Stormont, during his embassy at Paris, which is also preserved in the Grantham Collection, contributed greatly to trace the connections and policy of the two Bourbon courts at that eventful period.

‘ I obtained various documents from the Papers of Sir Stanyer Porten, who was consul at Madrid during the embassy of Lord Bristol, afterwards secretary to Lord Rochford, and Under Secretary of State. Among these papers I found many notices on the commerce and finances of Spain, and the interesting account written by Mr. Cumberland, of his mission to Madrid, printed in the seventy-second chapter. These papers were in the possession of his late widow.

‘ The Marquis of Lansdowne obligingly and liberally committed to my inspection, the various communications between his noble father then Earl of Shelburne, and the British agents at Paris, as well as with M. de Vergennes, De Grasse, and Rayneval, on the negotiation for the peace of 1782.

‘ My warmest acknowledgments are due to Lord Auckland, who after concluding the commercial treaty with France, filled the office of British ambassador at Madrid, with equal honour to himself and advantage to his country. His Lordship kindly favoured me with the use of his Manuscript Collections, as well for the composition of this work, as for that of my history of the House of Austria. These papers have furnished much valuable information, relative to the period between the peace of Paris and the death of Charles the Third, to the administration and principles of Florida Blanca, and to the financial, commercial, military, and naval system of Spain.

‘ By the favour of Lord Holland, I obtained also the inspection of several manuscript documents collected during his Lordship's journey in Spain.’

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The Walpole papers and other sources are then indicated; and Mr. C. ends with a tribute to a more humble name, to which, we suspect, he is not less (though differently) indebted than to those higher personages who have precedence in this enumeration :

‘ I cannot close this Preface without announcing my obligations to my faithful and intelligent secretary, Mr. Hatcher, for the very great advantages which I have derived from his assistance in preparing this work for the press; and in particular from his knowledge of the Spanish and Portuguese languages. His modesty prevented me from making this acknowledgment in my former publications; but I can no longer withhold this tribute of esteem and gratitude for his literary services during a period of sixteen years.’

The work commences with an historical introduction, or a sketch of the Spanish history from the union of Castile and Arragon to the extinction of the Austrian line; a part which has little to recommend it till we reach the unhappy reign of Charles III., which closes the Austrian dynasty. Here we contemplate in glowing and strong colours, the evils attendant on an imbecile government: but in the case of Spain, during this reign, they were unspeakably aggravated by the prospect of a disputed succession. The portraits of the adventurers Nitard and Valenzuela are well drawn; and that of the monarch is a complete picture of a mind labouring under the extreme of weakness.

It has been the author's aim to develop the policy by which the court of France secured the succession of Spain to a Bourbon prince; a plan which is ably conceived, incessantly and dextrously pursued, and in no instance overlooked. From the stipulated marriage of the Infanta, until the accession of Philip, it constitutes as it were a principal business of the French ministry; or rather of Louis XIV., who, during the greater part of that period, himself included the ministry; and nothing can be imagined more consummate, or that displays more deep contrivance, more exquisite address, and a more happy combination of means. In this affair, indeed, the skill of the statesman was eminently befriended by fortune. — The first part of the present volume contains a complete exposure of this grand result; and in no work, perhaps, does Louis XIV. appear so much to advantage as an able monarch. The great objects which he achieved are made to stand forwards in all their importance: but the silly parade with which they were executed, and which gave so much offence, are passed over; and it is here seen that, if motives of vanity had too great a sway over his mind, he still was fully aware of the importance of the measures which he pursued, and duly appreciated their utility.

We had selected the passages in this volume that bear us out in the character which we give to this transaction, and intended

to have inserted them in our pages: but we are aware that, however gratifying they might prove to those who are fond of tracing the steps of able statesmen, they are less interesting to the generality of readers than many other parts of the narrative, and we therefore pass them over. History scarcely furnishes another instance of an enterprize of equal magnitude, in effecting which, fortune, and human address and activity, have had so equal a share. It would seem to have required the long succession of dextrous manœuvres, which were adopted by the French court, — the fit of jealousy on the part of Don John of Austria, to which the French match was owing, — all the address of Harcourt, — the forbidding deportment of Count Harrach, — the ascendancy and later bias of Portocarrero, — the antipathy of the Pope to the house of Austria, — and the feeble contexture of Charles's mind, to insure the fortunes of the Bourbon prince. After all, probably, he would not have fixed himself on the throne of Spain, had not a Princess Omsini formed a part of his court; had not Britain been ruled by a weak Queen, and by treacherous counsellors; and had not the Archduke Joseph died, and Leopold succeeded to the imperial throne: — but for these seeming casualties, the exertions, the exquisite management, and the sacrifices of Louis, might have been in vain. — The elaborate close of the author's note, referring to the share which Louis XIV. took in accomplishing the accession of his grandson to the Spanish throne, might, we think, have been spared. The transactions speak for themselves, and, together with the nature of man and the character of the French monarch, exclude even the slightest degree of doubt on the subject.

A circumstance occurred on the occasion of announcing the contents of King Charles's will, which is so singular and revolting as to induce us to submit to our readers the account here given of it:

‘ On the third of November, 1700, died Charles the Second, the last male of the Austrian dynasty, which had governed Spain from the death of Ferdinand and Isabella to the period at which these Memoirs commence.

‘ The King had scarcely expired, before the ministers and officers of state assembled, according to antient custom, to examine and publish the royal testament. As this was a new era in the history of Spain, and as general anxiety prevailed to know the new sovereign, the palace was crowded with people of all ranks, and the antichamber filled with the foreign ministers and principal courtiers, all eager to receive the earliest intelligence. At length the folding doors being thrown open, the Duke of Abrantes appeared, and a general silence ensued to hear the nomination. Near the door stood the two ministers of France and Austria, Blecourt and Harrach. Blecourt advanced with the confidence of a man who expected a declaration in his

his favour; but the Spaniard casting on him a look of indifference, advanced to Harrach, and embraced him with a fervour which announced the most joyful tidings. Maliciously prolonging his compliment, and repeating his embrace, he said, "Sir, it is with the greatest pleasure — Sir, it is with the greatest satisfaction — for my whole life—I take my leave of the most illustrious house of Austria." The ambassador, who during this strange address had already begun to express his own satisfaction and promise the future favour of his sovereign, was thunderstruck with the malicious and unlooked for insult; and it required all his firmness to remain and hear the contents of the will, which overthrew the hopes and baffled the plans of his imperial master.' —

'This celebrated testament consisted of fifty-nine articles. The first eleven related to matters of religion and internal government; the twelfth to the succession of the issue of Charles, should he leave heirs. This served as an introductory clause to the thirteenth and fourteenth articles, which contained the dispositions for the transfer of the monarchy to a new sovereign.

'The will declared Philip Duke of Anjou, second son of the Dauphin, heir of the whole Spanish monarchy; in case of his death without issue, or accession to the French crown, entailed it on his brother the Duke of Berry, on the same condition; next on the Archduke Charles, second son of the Emperor, with a similar provision against its union with the Austrian dominions; and finally on the Duke of Savoy and his heirs. The testament recommended the immediate successor to espouse one of the Archduchesses. Should the new King be a minor or absent, the administration was vested in a junta or council of regency, consisting, as was customary, of the Queen as president, and the principal members of the church and state; namely, the Primate Archbishop of Toledo, Cardinal Portocarrero; the inquisitor-general, Don Balthazar de Mendoza; the presidents of Castile and Arragon, Don Manuel Arias, and the Duke of Montalto; and the representatives of the *grandees* and council of state, the Counts of Benevente and Frigiliana.

'The object of the will was evidently threefold: first, to prevent the dismemberment of the Spanish monarchy; secondly, to obviate the danger of uniting the two crowns of France and Spain on the same head; and lastly, to preserve the natural order of succession. The choice of a French prince was supported on the principle, that the renunciations of the two Infantas, aunt and sister of the testator, were merely intended to prevent the union of the two crowns of France and Spain; and that danger being obviated by the dispositions of the will, the natural right of succession necessarily took place.'

The following faithful portrait closes the author's lively and concise account of the conduct of the court of France on Philip's appointment, and his departure thence for his new kingdom:

'Philip had just entered the seventeenth year of his age, and at a time when the ardour and petulance of youth exert their full force,

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was of so sedate or so docile a character, as to justify the remark of his governor the Duke of Beauvilliers, that his royal pupil had never given him a moment of uneasiness or contradiction. With this pliant disposition, bred up in a bigotted and monotonous court, where every thing bore the stamp of submission, and bent before the nod of the great monarch, Philip had learnt to regard the person and will of his grandfather with a respect almost bordering on adoration. He had imbibed also a deep and awful sense of religion, and in his whole conduct and deportment displayed a moral purity and scrupulous decorum, which are rarely found in courts. A slight deformity of person was compensated by his prepossessing countenance; but he was stiff in his manners; and his good qualities were concealed by extreme timidity, and ignorance of the world. The difficulties and dangers of his situation were too mighty even for a prince of superior capacity and maturer age; and therefore, as the defects of his character were known, every precaution was necessary to watch over and direct his conduct.

Although the royal dynasty of Spain had been changed, and a new king had been seated on her throne, it was not her lot to experience any amelioration in the administration of her government; nor in the frame of it had any change been ever contemplated, or even desired.

The state of things under the new government cannot be more correctly depicted than it appears in this short passage of the present author:

‘ Philip literally obeyed the instructions which he had received from his grandfather, Louis XIV. He placed his full confidence in Portocarrero; he suffered him to assume the power of forming the new ministry, of gratifying his personal or political antipathies, and filling at his pleasure all offices and appointments of state; and from the commencement of his reign Philip was the king of a party and the vassal of France, to whom he principally owed his crown.’

By both Louis and Philip, it was considered that the latter owed his crown to Portocarrero.

In the whole of this affair, making due allowance for some last ~~last~~ — which statesmen so much affect, but which few men the death ^l as not to penetrate,—the views of the energetic and *Memoirs con.*

‘ The King ^l appear to be more enlarged, equitable, and of state assembled, acc^t representations given of him by the majority lish the royal testament. ^l indicate or warrant. It is still true, Spain, and as general anxiety p^t the French monarch contrived that the palace was crowded with people in favour of France in the filled with the foreign ministers and prandson’s government should receive the earliest intelligence. At leng^t as fully bent, and for the thrown open, the Duke of Abrantes appear^t the efforts of his mind. ensued to hear the nomination. Near the door, the present work^t ers of France and Austria, Blecourt and Harri^t vanced with the confidence of a man who expects.

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* Although the accession of Philip had been unexpectedly tranquil, it was not long before a spirit of opposition manifested itself against the new government. While Portocarrero was giving the reins to his ambition and vengeance, the French King was employed with equal activity to consolidate and extend his influence, by a change in the general system of administration. Under the Austrian sovereigns, the operations of the government had been conducted by the respective councils or boards of Castile, War, Finance, the Indies, and Marine, and Grace, and Justice; and the chiefs of these boards formed a species of cabinet council, called the *Universal Despacho*. This body however was not assembled in the presence of the King; but the real organ of the sovereign will, and consequently the prime minister of Spain, if we may use the term, was the principal secretary of the *Despacho*, whose office was to register the result of its deliberations; submit it to the King, and announce the royal pleasure. The person who now filled this office was Ubilla, who acted so important a part in the arrangement of the late will.

A native Spaniard, who possessed all the advantages attached to this office, under a young and inexperienced sovereign, could not fail of becoming the real spring of the government. To obviate the danger, Portocarrero and the president of Castile were admitted into the royal presence, when the secretary of the *Despacho* made his reports, and soon afterwards it was proposed to extend the same privilege to Harcourt, the French ambassador. Louis, either confiding in the attachment of the Cardinal, or willing to shew the appearance of disinterestedness, affected to decline the proposal; but his prudery was overcome by the repeated instances of Portocarrero, and the conviction, that without this expedient, no human contrivance could prevent the government from becoming purely Spanish.

This French controul, and Portocarrero's gross misuse of his boundless authority, revived and added strength to the opposition which the weakness of the late reign had called forth, and as it were embodied. The natural qualities of the youthful monarch now shewed themselves; while the sombre state of the court, and the opposition which he experienced from the grandees, increased his dislike to business. Mr. Coxe's picture of the state of the Spanish government, at the commencement of the new reign, is not less able and instructive than just and striking:

'The police and internal government were sunk into the most deplorable disorder. Even in the very capital itself, the neglect or incapacity of past governments had given the reins to every species of licentiousness. The palaces of the grandees, and even the churches, were become the asylum of crimes; the slightest rise in the price of provisions excited the deepest alarm; every street and square was filled with armed vagabonds, discarded domestics, people without occupation or the means of subsistence; the establishments destined to maintain the respect due to royalty were sunk into a mere empty form, and all the dignity of the crown had not been sufficient to pre-
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serve the late monarch from the most mortifying insults both to the person and authority.

‘ Similar disorder reigned in the finances. The royal revenues were half absorbed by the servants of government, or the farmers and agents on whom its necessities reduced it to depend for supplies ; and at the same time, the people, both in the capital and the provinces, were vexed and loaded with every species of monopoly and extortion. The vast revenues of the new world were still more deplorably administered ; the viceroys and governors, after defrauding the crown and oppressing the subject, were suffered to return from their governments, and enjoy with impunity the fruits of their peculation and venality.

‘ The crown was thus not only robbed of its splendour, but reduced to inconceivable penury. The same difficulties occurred in raising ten pistoles as ten thousand ; the salaries of the royal household were unpaid ; the pay of the troops was in constant arrears, and the royal guards were often reduced to share with mendicants the charitable donations of convents and hospitals.

‘ Wretched as was the internal situation of Spain, its naval and military establishments were equally deplorable.

‘ The two treaties contracted with Portugal and Savoy, which were intended to secure the throne and maintain tranquillity, were the principal causes of her ruin, from the imprudent security which they inspired. Hence both the frontiers of Spain and the distant provinces were neglected. No care had been employed to fortify the frontiers of Andalusia, Valencia, and Catalonia, justly considered as the keys of the Peninsula. As if there had been no prospect of war, these provinces were without garrisons and magazines ; the fortifications dilapidated, even the breaches which Vendome had made in the former siege of Barcelona were not repaired, and from Roses to Cadiz scarcely a single fort or castle was garrisoned or mounted with artillery. The same negligence prevailed in the ports of Galicia and Biscay ; the magazines were without ammunition ; the arsenals and work-shops empty ; the art of constructing ships was lost ; the royal navy consisted only of those armed vessels which were employed in the trade to South America, and a few galloons ; six gallees, decayed from age, were anchored in the bay of Carthage, and seven were kept in the ports of the Genoese territory. The distant provinces were equally defenceless. In Naples were only six complete companies, in Sicily 500 men ; scarcely 300 in Sardinia and the Balearic Isles ; and in the Netherlands and Milan, the countries the best provided against an attack, there were only 8,000 troops in the former, and 6,000 in the latter.

‘ The militia appeared only on the muster roll, and were inexperienced and undisciplined, and the peasantry were alone obliged to provide themselves with muskets. The whole army did not exceed 20,000 men.’ —

‘ The soldiery, far from being won over to the new government by the usual graces, not only derived no benefit from the change of sovereigns, but saw even the regular payment of their scanty pittance suspended. Such impolitic parsimony damped the sanguine hopes of a people

~~a people~~ who expected that the accession of a new dynasty would be marked by a profusion of favours and benefits, and who flattered themselves that their country would resume all its pristine splendour without sweeping away those abuses and innumbrances which had been accumulating for ages.'

It surprises us to learn that the cause of discontent mentioned in the next passage was given to this jealous and haughty nation : but it shews the predominance of vanity in the mind of the French monarch :

' The pride and dignity of the Spanish nation were deeply wounded by an order which imparted to the peers of France the same rank and honours as were enjoyed by the *grandees* of Castile ; and it required all the influence and even the threats of Philip to extort the acquiescence of his high-spirited nobles in this odious measure.'

The author then proceeds :

' The dissatisfaction of the natives was aggravated by the petulance of French ridicule, and by the eagerness of the French to domineer in the trivial concerns of customs, manners, and fashions ; by the reform of the royal kitchen, and the introduction of French cookery ; the occasional use of the French costume, and the abrogation of many parts of the antient etiquette. The impression which these apparently trifling innovations made on a people bigotted to their own usages, will appear from an incident which occurred during the preparations for the marriage. Philip ordered the Marquis of Villafraña, to whose department the direction of such matters belonged, to deliver to a French upholsterer the tapestry, hangings, and other ornaments which were to be used on this occasion. The rigid Spaniard did not suffer his devotion to France to outweigh his national prejudices. He refused compliance, and, to the remonstrances of the upholsterer, replied, " We must live in Spain, as they do in Spain ;" and nothing but a new and positive order from the King could induce him to obey.

' The change of sovereigns led with it other mischiefs, which all the vigilance of the French court was in vain exerted to prevent. On the accession of a French prince, Madrid was crowded with swarms of Frenchmen, of the most despicable and abandoned characters, who were eager to gather the fruits of the promised land. Whole tribes of harlots, swindlers, gamblers, pickpockets, and projectors, were all *allured* thither by the lure of gain, and by their infamous conduct at once vilified their native country, and gave new force to that odium which had hitherto operated as an insuperable barrier between the two nations.

' The seeds of rebellion were diffused, and the public grievances aggravated by the fanaticism of the clergy. The priests abused the sacred office of confession, to excite discontent : the French were stigmatised as heretics ; those who were connected with them were accused of irreligion ; and even the authority of the Pope was falsely employed to give new strength to the pretensions of an Austrian prince.

: Ray. Journ, 1813.

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'All these causes contributed to excite discontent in a nation wedded to its ancient establishments, and proud of the magnificence of its court. But the general odium was still further aggravated by the appointment of a Frenchman to the management of the finances.'

This person was the favourite child of Fortune, Orri; who, whatever might be his skill in his department, afterward gave such convincing proofs of his deficiency in every quality which fits a man for a high station and a new scene.

The two grand pillars, on which the commencing monarchy reposed, were Portocarrero and Arias. Mr. Coxe's portraits of these personages will dissipate from our minds all wonder at the scenes of which we have given sketches, and will abate the admiration which we may have had the courtesy to bestow on the imposing offices of ministers of state:

'Portocarrero, proud of his important services to the house of Bourbon, grasped at all the power of the state, and deemed no reward too great for his merits. Though an adroit intriguer, and versed in all the arts of petty cunning, he was slow in the transaction of business, and inexperienced in the great duties of government; yet he was presumptuous and opiniative, stern and supercilious, when he had no personal interest to consult; supple and fawning when he hoped or feared. Jealous of his ascendancy he secluded the King in the interior of the palace, inspired him with distrust of the nobles, whom he represented as enemies of the royal authority; and filled him with the constant dread of being treated as a dignified slave, like Charles the Second. He at the same time employed his artifices with equal success among the nobles; and widened the distance between them and the court, by inspiring them with a similar jealousy of the person and power of the sovereign. His flattery of the King of France was in the highest degree extravagant; and he eagerly proposed or supported every measure which appeared agreeable to the court of Versailles, however contrary to the interests or prejudices of his country. Yet with the same selfish spirit which directed his actions in other instances, he no sooner perceived the revival of the national antipathy to foreigners, than he began to complain of being overruled by orders from Versailles, and threw on the French counsels and nation the odium which he had excited by his own rigor and servility.

'Don Manuel Arias, president of the council of Castile, possessed more intelligence and capacity for business than Portocarrero; but was equally stern and unconciliating. He was originally a knight of Malta; and at the age of fifty was prompted by lucre, or ambition, to assume the clerical habit. He had been recently appointed Archbishop of Seville; but the proud fame of Ximenes had not ceased to present a temptation to Spanish prelates; and Arias looked forward to the time when he hoped to unite the Roman purple with the primacy of Spain and the high-office of Grand Inquisitor. Harsh and overbearing to inferiors, he surpassed even Portocarrero in servility to those from whom he hoped for advancement. His language on the

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...narrative of a Spanish monarch assumed the florid colouring of Eastern adulation. "God," he said, "had placed Philip at the head of a government not only monarchical but more despotic than any other Christian kingdom; even the right of remonstrance not belonging to his subjects without his permission. The Cardinal-archbishop of Toledo," he added, "had but one guardian angel to direct him, but to every king two tutelary angels were assigned, one for their private conduct, and one more able for the government of their states." By the illumination derived from this guardian spirit, he inferred, "that any King, though of the most moderate capacity, must be more capable of governing than the ablest minister."

Portocarrero held the same language respecting the royal prerogative. May we not ascribe to these degrading principles, proclaimed by these base men and traitors to their nation, the calamitous fate of Philip's descendants, and the present abject state of the Spanish people!

The account which Mr. Coxe gives of the young monarch at this period is deserving of attention:

"In the midst of these embarrassments the temper and constitution of Philip began to change, and he sunk under the weight of difficulties too great for the strength of an ordinary capacity at so early an age. He, who at his first arrival in Spain had been lauded for his industry, capacity, and intelligence, now fell into the extreme of inattention and indolence. He no longer observed regular and early hours, but indulged himself in midnight suppers, and on the ensuing days kept the members of the council in waiting whole hours for his appearance, at a time when the most urgent business was depending. It was justly said of him, "He goes to council because he must go; and in coming out, forgets what has passed there; he keeps letters of business whole days unopened, and never speaks of them." The example of the monarch produced a similar effect on his counsellors; and a grandee who had presented a memorial in succession to the King, the leading ministers, and the French ambassador, said, with as much wit as justice, "What a government is ours! a King who speaks not; a Cardinal who listens not; a President of Castile who can not; and a French ambassador who will not."

From this habitual indolence, no means could be found of sufficient potency to rouse him. Even the remonstrances of his grandfather availed only while they were yet fresh in his memory.

Although Philip had not long been seated on the throne before he married, yet that event may be considered as forming an epoch in his reign, since it introduced on the scene those personages who had a paramount influence over its subsequent proceedings. The French King had fixed on a Princess of Savoy to be the new Queen, but had at the same time discovered extreme anxiety lest this measure should disturb the ascendancy in the

Spanish councils which he had taken such pains to establish, and which he was above all things desirous of maintaining. Hence it was that the Princess Orsini, who was devoted to the court of France, was appointed to attend the Queen on her journey; and that the latter had no sooner entered the dominions of her future husband, than her Piedmontese attendants were dismissed without a single exception. Orders were also given that no Piedmontese should on any account approach her person; and that she was only to give audience to ambassadors in the presence of the Princess Orsini. These precautions seem to have been for the most part unnecessary, because she discovered no inclination, until she received grievous provocations, to thwart her grandfather-in-law, but shewed herself on all occasions obsequious to his wishes. Her absolute ascendancy over her husband was soon manifest: but that circumstance caused no interruption to Louis's favourite object of governing his grandson's kingdom. The author thus briefly describes the young Queen at the time of her arrival in Spain:

“ Maria Louisa had scarcely entered her fourteenth year, and appeared still more youthful from the smallness of her stature; but her spirit and understanding partook of the early maturity of her native climate, and to exquisite beauty of person and countenance she united the most captivating manners and graceful deportment.”

In order to guard against her decided influence over the easy and indolent young King, it became a matter of anxious deliberation to determine who should be her Camerara-mayor, or superintendant of her household; and the Princess Orsini, who had attended her on her journey, was chosen: than whom, for all purposes, no person better adapted could be found. Mr. Coxe thus describes that high office, and the lady who had been appointed to fill it:

“ The Camerara-mayor enjoyed a constant and intimate access to the royal presence, and was to be a species of guardian to her youthful mistress. From these circumstances the Cameraras-mayores in former times had not unfrequently governed both the court and nation.”

“ To fill this delicate post at the present period, many rare and even contradictory requisites were to unite. It was necessary to choose a lady of the highest rank, and character, to give dignity to the office; yet it was equally necessary that with a predominant influence over the Queen, she should submit to be guided by the French minister. She could not be a Spaniard, because Portocarrero and Arias were jealous lest a native should labour for the advancement of her own family and friends; and because the French monarch was no less apprehensive that a native would not be sufficiently obedient to his controul. She could not, however, be sent directly from the French court; for besides the want of an acquaintance with the language,

manners, customs, and etiquette, a person so circumstanced would naturally excite the jealousy of the nation. Still stronger though different objections occurred against making the choice at the court of Spain. By a singular coincidence of circumstances, all these requisites appeared to centre in the Princess Orsini, who from this period became one of the most prominent figures in the history of Spain during the war of the succession.

Anne Marie of the illustrious family of La Tremouille, was daughter of Louis Duke of Noirmoutier, whose military services during the minority of Louis the Fourteenth had been rewarded with the rank of a Duke and Peer. She espoused at an early age, Adrian Blaise de Taleyrand Prince of Chalais. Her husband being engaged in the celebrated duel with the family of La Fret, in which one of the parties was killed, was driven into exile. Having taken refuge in Spain he was followed by his young wife, who had thus an opportunity of becoming acquainted with the Spanish language and manners. They afterwards removed into Italy, and while he found an asylum in the Venetian territories, she repaired to Rome to solicit the protection of the French Cardinals Bouillon and D'Estrees. Her charms are said to have made an impression on her two protectors, as well as on Cardinal Portocarrero, then Spanish minister at Rome; and her husband dying soon afterwards, she remained with no other resource than their bounty. By the recommendation of the two French cardinals and the approbation of the French court, a marriage was negotiated between her and Flavio D'Orsini, Duke of Bracciano and grandee of Spain, who was consequently recompensed with the French order of the Holy Ghost, an honour rarely bestowed on foreigners, however illustrious.

This connection produced the usual effects of interested and ill-assorted matches; but the Duchess shone in all the pride of rank and affluence, and supplied the want of matrimonial felicity, by uniting in her society the most distinguished characters at Rome; and by frequent visits to her native country. With such opportunities for improvement, her talents, manners, and understanding acquired the highest polish, and she soon figured as one of the brightest ornaments at Rome and Versailles.

In one of her visits to Versailles, which was lengthened to the space of five years, she improved a former acquaintance which she had formed with Madame de Maintenon, into the strictest intimacy; and became the admiration of the King and court. Her husband dying in 1698, she assumed his family name of Orsini, to gratify the nephew of Pope Innocent the Twelfth, who having purchased the duchy of

* The exact age of this extraordinary woman is not known. But from the period of her father's marriage, and a comparison of the births of her two brothers in 1642 and 1652, and her own marriage in 1659, we are inclined to think she was about the age of 53 when she was appointed camerara-mayor. Duclos is evidently mistaken in making her above 80 at the time of her death. Duclos, *Memoires Secrets*, t. i. p. 83. — P. Anselme, *Histoire Genealogique de France*, &c. t. 4. p. 178. — Moreri.

Bracciano, was desirous to appropriate the title. Ambitions to ~~aspire~~ in a still higher sphere than in the court of Rome, the faintest ~~plans~~ of advancement could not escape her vigilant attention; and the expected marriage between Philip and a Piedmontese princess, presented an opportunity of which she adroitly availed herself.

This extraordinary female had excited attention in other situations: but the reign of Philip is the scene in which she appears with all her lustre. In the assemblage of august and elevated characters, consisting of monarchs and princes, statesmen and warriors, ministers and negotiators, grandees and courtiers, which these volumes present to our view, — even in this imposing group, — the Princess appears a prominent figure, and attracts no small share of our notice by her singular adventures, her capacity for business, the part which she acts, the storms which she weathers, and her interesting and winning qualities, as well as by her ultimate reverse of fate. She is the heroine of this portion of Spanish history; and the highly-coloured portrait given of her by St. Simon is by no means over-charged. Our readers perhaps have not yet recognized in her the celebrated Madame des Ursins, a name which occurs so frequently in the French histories and memoirs of this æra. — For the lively and humorous accounts which she gives of some preposterous instances of Spanish etiquette, we must refer our readers to the pages of Mr. Coxe, and to the French Memoirs of Noailles. During a short period, few females, who have not swayed sceptres, have acted a more important political part than this Camerara-mayor: to whose farther fortunes we must attend in a subsequent article.

[To be continued.]

ART. VII. *On National Education*, by George Ensor, Esq. Author of *National Government*, *Independent Man*, and *Principles of Morality*. 8vo, pp. 338. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

WE are sometimes inclined to hope, as we grow older, that our disposition to extract only the good from each of the contending parties around us, whether in art or science, rather increases than diminishes: but, if in this fancy "we lay a flattering unction to our souls," and if we are still blinded, on too many occasions, to the partial merits of those whom we generally disapprove, we feel well assured that such is not the case in the present instance. To deny that Mr. Ensor possesses very considerable learning; — ample acquaintance, we mean, with the thoughts of ancient authors, if not a critical knowledge of their languages; — or to deny that he often thinks powerfully and practically himself; — would be

Of an indication of prejudice which we should be very sorry to exhibit: but at the same time to contend that Mr. Ensor's learning is in many parts of this volume needlessly introduced, and to maintain that his freedom of inquiry often degenerates into querulous scepticism, and into unqualified abuse of his adversaries,—these attempts, we conceive, are demanded from us by truth and justice. We shall calmly and briefly report on the various contents of his present work.

May we not, ere we begin, lay it down as a rule, by which we ought to judge of the wisdom and good intentions of reformers, that they should proceed as gently as the case can admit; that they should make allowance for existing prejudices; and that they should endeavour, at first, rather to lop and prune the unhealthy branches, than to tear up the whole tree by the roots? If this rule be admitted, and we apply it to Mr. Ensor's mode of reforming, we fear that he will not be acquitted of precipitancy and want of judgment, even though no heavier charge should be brought against him*. We may mention, for instance, (and it is an instance most favourable to the author,) p. 76., the manner in which he speaks of the violation of the statute of celibacy by the Fellows of Trinity College, Dublin. The whole attack, for fifty pages, on the studies pursued at that place, and at Oxford and Cambridge, is equally violent and injudicious. Surely Mr. E. cannot be well acquainted with the literary discipline of those Universities, or he would not represent it as *subally* unwise and mischievous. Some faults, nay many, are confessedly observable in our academical systems of education: but to condemn the entire institutions, indiscriminately, is to talk at random; and if the talker has had an opportunity of knowing better, it is to be worse than inconsiderate. Besides, for the sake of argument, let us suppose that the management of these endowed establishments of learning is completely erroneous,—what chance is there of practical good being done, of salutary change being accelerated, by a condemnation, *certainly* as warm as it *may* be just, of all the regulations, and of all who maintain them, or whom they maintain? It is woeful ignorance or perverse defiance of the general disposition of mankind, to attempt the correction of their folly by its grossest exposure; or to imagine that they may be made good by telling them that they are good for nothing. At all events, such wholesale censurers should be most scrupulously accurate in detailing the grounds of their advice; or all that is truly correct in that advice will be rejected,

* See also the account, in our last Number, of Mr. Ensor's *National Government*, of which the present work is a continuation.

from the natural suspicion that those who in one instance complain without a cause may in all attack without a reason.

We should have premised that the sections of this volume, preceding that to which we have referred, are employed in some strictures on Spartan, Athenian, Persian, and Chinese education, and in a general defence of national education; by which the author means, '*principally, the instruction of youth in literature and science.*' (Page 4.)—How far this blessing ought to be diffused, in its perfection, through the several ranks of society, is a reasonable and useful question; and, thank God, this is the only statement of the question which can be tolerated in our times. The advocates for the total ignorance of the poor, the defenders of the doctrine of Arcadian simplicity, or rather of mere animal existence, as most conducive not only to the welfare of the governed but to the security of their governors, seem daily passing away. They have given up the dispute as to the matter of right, and make a feeble stand for expediency: but we entertain confident hopes that it will soon be deemed as shameful to contend for withholding a certain portion of *national education* from any part of the community, as to revive the exploded arguments in favour of the slave-trade. We have, certainly, lived to witness a great and glorious improvement in our fellow-feeling for our fellow-creatures, on many important points; and events are passing under our eyes, and especially in the council of our own nation, which refresh us with this cheering consciousness. Agreeing then entirely (as it is almost unnecessary to remark) with the principle of Mr. Ensor's first section, we shall not stop to censure some minor extravagancies in his defence of national education*. In the account of the several antient and foreign systems which follows, we have much curious information, and worthy matter of inquiry. That the mode of introducing some of the references is pedantic will be obvious, we think, to every reader; and that some of the conclusions are not warranted by the premises, an examination of the context of the cited passages will occasionally shew: but it would be equally foolish and fastidious to refuse the instruction which the largest portion of this comprehensive though rapid sketch is calculated to convey, because the remainder may be open to the censure which we have implied.

We now come to the section '*Concerning endowed Schools of various Descriptions in England and Ireland.*' We pass

* We must, however, ask him, *en passant*, why he stepped out of his way to shew his disrespect for the Bible, by telling us in a note, page 14., that he takes the account of Eve's sin from Milton?

over the author's remarks on the mismanagement of the Protestant schools in the latter country; thinking, even according to his own statement, that much good is mixed with much evil in their constitution; and hoping that, in the present era, when so much more attention is likely to be bestowed on the internal state of Ireland than it ever before has claimed from the legislature, the best means for amending every system of education in that neglected land will at length be adopted. With regard to endowed English schools, after some just but perhaps too severe strictures on parts of the management of the Blue-coat Hospital, previously to a late inquiry, the author proceeds to the public seminaries of education, and remarks that he shall virtually speak of them when 'he discusses some chief points of discipline honoured and practised at the Universities.' He ushers in this discussion (to which we have already referred) with rather an ill-omened remark: page 68. 'Was not Wakefield at King's College, Cambridge?' he triumphantly asks, in answer to an observation from Dr. Parr that the errors of that critic are attributable, principally, to his want of a public education. Without entering into the main question here proposed, or indeed considering any collateral branches of it, we have simply to observe that the author's own query concerning Wakefield's education at the Charter-house should have prevented what he has betrayed above, namely, his ignorance of the fact whether Wakefield was at King's College. No member of that society was ever educated at any place but Eton; and this remark leads us to another error, of no great importance, indeed, excepting in the proof that it affords (were such proof wanting) that the most dogmatical assertions may proceed from the mouth of professed scepticism. At page 217. Mr. Ensor observes, with his usual sarcasm on such a subject; 'Boys among us are generally taught to read in the Bible; and the lower class in Eton is expressly called the Bible-class.' Eton is a grammar-school, into which boys are not admitted who are unable to read their native language. The name of the Bible-class is given to the first form of that seminary merely because portions of the Bible are occasionally read in it; and because the Catechism, and some other elementary compendia of religious instruction, (doubtless extracted from the Scriptures,) are frequently taught. A great part of the business is comprized in the Latin grammar and vocabulary. Surely, Mr. E. should have informed himself better on such easily ascertained matters as these, before he grounded objections on unwarranted assumptions, and combated his own chimeras.

He

He next dilates on 'the bad Effects of incorporated Academies, of Boards, and of the Pensions and Patronage of Kings, Ministers, and Legislatures, to Learning, Liberty, and Truth.' It is a more common charge against the governors of kingdoms, that they neglect the patronage of learning: but Mr. E. takes directly the opposite side of the question; maintaining that, like fond, or foolish, or drowsy nurses, they overlay and smother the child of their protection. We shall not pursue his wild and rambling remarks on this subject; nor shall we follow his still more daring flights of fancy against the establishment of national education by law: chusing rather to observe what sort of an edifice of his own he erects, in the room of those many antient buildings which he vehemently labours to destroy. Let us see whether this "*John Knox of Education*," having levelled with the ground the fair monuments of time-honoured liberality and zeal for learning, has been prepared to build a snug little private school-room or two in their place; and what are the laws, by which his "plain brown brick" academies are to be regulated. We beg his pardon, however. We must do him the justice to say that he strenuously and sensibly contends for the cause of public education, against Locke and other defenders of private instruction; and that all which he wants is to have every thing managed according to his own conceptions of utility and cheapness. Let us now examine what those conceptions are.

First, then, in spite of his objection to *Boards* in general, he would have a particular *Board* of his own, for the management of National Education. *Sed in quovis ligno non fit Mercurius*; and we think that Mr. Ensor's board would be of the unproductive description. 'It should be popularly elected; and its office should be to collect and communicate information. It should advise, not command; criticise, not punish. Its authority and its proposals should depend solely on the respectability of its members; and on the acknowledged wisdom of their proceedings.' (Page 174.) This is all very plausible, and inoffensive, and unobjectionable: but of what class of persons is this board to consist? Not of *gentlemen*, (169.) for they are too extravagant. Not of *clergymen*; for they are of all impostors (&c. &c. *passim*.) the most dangerous and detestable. Of *yeomen*, then, we presume, this board should consist: good, honest, industrious, homely, "plain, brown," yeomen: for, *à fortiori*, the nobility are to be excluded; and the ladies (as we shall see presently) are the most frivolous and fantastical of all the friends of education. The poor, we presume, are not to educate themselves; and it is really a pity that this plan for employing the yeomanry, as a National Board of Education,

did not occur to the committee of yeomen lately engaged in an unsuccessful contest with the noble and gentle governors of Harrow school. As "*omne majus*," &c. might have been suggested to them by some of their legal friends, it would instantly have occurred that, Mr. Ensor's larger plan being adopted, their own minor object, as a part of that plan, would have been immediately and perfectly obtained.

The Board being formed, and schools also sufficiently large, and at convenient distances, *voluntarily* established throughout the country *, the ingenious projector now lays down, in detail, his plan of education. It is very ample, and we must therefore be contented with a mere abstract of this portion of the work; excepting where the interest of the subject, or the manner of treating it, demands a quotation.—Our readers will smile at the *solemnity* of some of the following truisms, and stare at the audacity of some of the assumptions. Boys and girls should *learn* though not *lodge* together, when children; and afterward be classed according to sexes. (178.) Schools, as above intimated, should be large; and education useful and cheap. (192.) *Every one that pleases should be permitted to teach*, but should first offer a proof of his abilities, singly, or in competition, if another candidate offers for the post, (200.); and *the masters should be supported by the scholars*, (205.) that is, the poor are to pay for what they learn, for it amounts to this. We must here insert an unbroken passage from the volume of Mr. Ensor:

'Though,' he says, 'I honour knowledge, and though I think even the acquisition of its elements adds distinction to man, I would not encourage its advancement among the community except by honest and independent means. None but these should promote learning in any situation; not in the primary schools, and still less in the superior where the higher branches of knowledge are principally taught. To teach by the intervention of bounties, no matter to what schools or colleges bounties are attached, is to force property out of its lawful course, and to force men out of their legitimate calling. No matter from what specious reasons, or from what benevolent intention, such seminaries are founded; they are often pernicious, and frequently absurd both in their order and objects. In what do they essentially differ, except in the perpetuity and enormity of their expences, from those ostentatious schools of idle ladies, who have fancy-work taught to so many girls clad in fancy-dresses, and lodged in houses built in the last cottage-taste? Are the youths in our great schools taught as much? Are the youths in our colleges taught much more? Are not the dresses of the latter even more fantastic? In what do these established seminaries, en-

* Mr. Ensor, page 203., *advises* all 'territorial possessors' to build school-houses on their estates, and to *assist* in supporting the masters. He very unassumingly intimates that he has done so himself.

dowed with lands and rents, differ from those schools patronised by pious dames, who employ sermons on Sundays and rallies on week days: or who, like sturdy beggars, obtain alms by importunity; or who, like impostors, raise contributions on the charitable and humane by selling toys at great prices? — In no way, I repeat, except in the perpetuity and enormity of their appropriations. They have a strong coincidence, whether they date their origin from begging ladies, or mendicant friars, or holy monks, or sainted knights, or jobbing ministers, or martyred kings. And what is the consequence? They have drawn thousands from their destination, and prepared them for situations which society does not afford. Thus all these means, to teach God knows what, have, beside their great expense to the people, operated as killing kindnesses to those whom they seemed to distinguish. And this spirit and its evil concomitants have gone abroad to the utmost extent of the empire.'

We need not offer any remarks on this extract. Those of our readers who have seen any thing of the state of country-villages and especially of parishes in which the great land-proprietors are resident, will be able to judge of the justice, of the utility, and of the wisdom, of such representations. — Waiving the case of the Universities, (which, in relation to the author's attack, we have sufficiently considered,) surely it is most injudicious, and most deficient in proper feeling, to check the current of female charity, and to make the protection of the poor unfashionable. No moralist, however stern or cautious, would reject the assistance of pleading beauty, or disarm virtue of one of her chief attractions. As to the author's regulations for his national schools, many of them are very sensible, and by no means obvious: but others are as stale as they are true, and some as false as they are novel. Let our readers distinguish. (P. 210.) Constitution should be considered as to the age at which children are sent to school; but they are capable of domestic instruction before they are five years old. (This is a very beneficial piece of advice to the poor; as useful at home, as their paying for their education abroad.) 'The rich and the poor should be educated together.' (211.) There should be no distinction of ranks —

"Crassaque convenient liquidis et liquida crassis."

We must here recur to the text; which is too concise, too oracular, and too pregnant with wisdom, to be abbreviated:

'In educating children, two objects present themselves: first, the object to be attained: and secondly, the means of attaining it; and the latter is twofold: for example, suppose the means of attaining knowledge be reading and writing, there is subordinate to them the mode of learning to read and write.'

The various modes of teaching these elementary arts, adopted by Lancaster, ('who teaches Christianity as our Saviour taught it,'

it, according to Mr. Ensor,) by Bell, ("who is a weak man," according to the same authority,) and by various other ancient and modern instructors, are now discussed: but none are positively approved. A violent tirade follows, against the clergy of every denomination. The reader is alternately led to despair of heaven by Mr. Ensor's doubts of man's immortality*, and encouraged to laugh at hell by that gentleman's antipathy to the said 'device,' as he quaintly terms it. (P. 242.) All this may be very wise: but we may be allowed modestly to remind the author not only of the reply to Anacharsis Clootz, (recorded in Moore's Travels in France,) but of this simple fact, that his opponents are objects of compassion, not of insult, according to his own account.

The reader will now be curious to learn what are the principles which are proper to be instilled into the youthful mind. First, then, on the authority of the Chinese, the Siamese, the Athenians, the Lacedæmonians, the Romans, &c., *Children should be taught to honour their parents*; and this feeling should be mutual; being a tie rather of love than respect; the last (p. 252.) 'denoting something cold and distant.' Secondly, they should be taught to love one another. "Behold I give you a new commandment!" &c. Thirdly, they should be taught what is variously called politeness, civility, courtesy, (p. 256.) that is, not to make bows, to be obsequious, &c. &c.; but to defer to wisdom, and to give precedence where honour is due:—not to be censorious, p. 260. ("Judge not that ye be not judged," &c.)—to think decorously of themselves; (261.) and to tell truth, according to the examples of Epaminondas and Philopæmen, and the ideas of the Magi, 'who said that the body of their god Oromasdes was light, and his soul Truth.' (262.) Economy of time and of money should also be inculcated. The means for attaining these excellent ends come next under consideration; and the first is Poetry. Music, which in its first state implied poetry, is not now necessary. 'Every ancient philosopher was a poet down to Maturius, who, Athenæus says, equally cultivated music and wisdom.' (265.) 'Poetry should be preserved, were it only employed as by Evenus the Parian †, to assist the memory,

* Which, he says, (p. 261.) he could as soon believe as man's perfectibility. Does he only mean to ridicule the quackery of *ad aliam vitam*? If so, why not be more explicit? Why preserve a dead silence on future hopes?

† Mr. Ensor sometimes reminds us of Burton, in his *Anatomy of Melancholy*, and sometimes of Montaigne, in his *Essays*, by the fullness and frequency, and we must add the pedantry, of his quotations. The originals, indeed, are quite above the copy.

which we may conjecture was its primary purpose, according to the philosophizing mythology of the Greeks; who reputed the Muses the daughters of Jupiter and Memory.' Troth, this is very fine. — Plato, Aristotle, Aristides, the Egyptians, &c., recommended and employed poetry as the vehicle of morality. A moral institute, proceeds the author, ought to be selected from the writings of our own poets. Here, we think, he speaks the words of truth and soberness; and with the criticism which follows, (except in its indiscriminating application to one powerful writer,) we cordially agree: nay, we most earnestly wish, for the sake of our national taste, that such sentiments were more generally diffused and adopted. If they be not, our poetry will soon be driven back into barbarism.

' A good selection would also seem to be in so ample a store as easy performance, unless we consider the calamity of Greece in similar circumstances, according to the lamentation of Isocrates, "that while the poets Hesiod, Theognis, and Phocylides, who deal liver sage advice, are known only to few, many waste their time in hearing and reciting paltry tales, and paltrier poems;" and unless we also consider the general conduct of men of our own time, and even of the present day, when the great masters of our poetry, who rehearse the most elaborate themes, the noblest and most pathetic sentiments, with melody itself, shall be little read, or wholly neglected, for undigested romances of ladies, knights, and squires, and second-sighted dotards in doggrel — poems to which Cervantes furnished the tale, and Butler the measure. As the clown says in Shakespeare, "I'll rhyme you thus eight years together: it is the right butter-woman's rate to market." The rage for such productions resembles the fury that seized all the idle some years ago to see the boy actor; and had nature still continued him a child, I believe the world would still have continued to admire: but, unhappily, to cure this present fanaticism nature affords no remedy; for these poems can be repeated at pleasure one after the other, each telling nearly the same tale in the same tone, and wonder shall succeed to admiration; or, if none succeed, the same poem shall revive under another fashion; its costume of ancient days shall be exchanged for existing foppery; and the romance, like the tapestry of good Queen Bess, turned into a showman's coat, shall be metamorphosed into a pantomime, or a melodrame, or into a novel — the consummation of modern madness.

' This is monstrous depravity of taste; to neglect or discard the poetry of a classical age for minstrelsy, the vagabond extravagance of lawless times.

' Look here upon this picture and on this;
The counterfeit resemblance of two brothers,
————— Sense sure you have,
Else would you not have motion: but sure that sense
Is apoplex'd, for madness would not err,

Not

Not sense to ecstasy was e'er so thrall'd,
But it reserved some quantity of choice,
To serve in such a difference.

Besides these precepts of morality, the lives of eminent men, condensed and written in prose, (although occasionally in verse also,) should be studied by the young; and to them should succeed the fundamental laws of the state, according to the practice of the *Spartans, Athenians, Jews, Quakers, Romans, and ancient Britons*. (275, 276.) Some strictures on modern interpretations of the laws of England follow; and we are not indisposed to join the author in his eulogy on certain members of both Houses who, on a late occasion, contested the justice of applying a passage in the Bill of Rights to the seizure and imprisonment of the conductor of a spouting club. The assertion, (p. 279.) that the English laws make no part of University-education, is a little hasty; when it is confessed that Blackstone and Sullivan have published their lectures on those laws, as given at Oxford and Dublin; and when it should have been known that lectures on the common as well as on the civil-law are to be obtained at Cambridge.

Clement Alexandrinus, Strabo, and Sir William Jones, are now quoted to shew that the Spartans, Spaniards, and Hindus, turned their laws into verse: but these attempts are censured; and though its due influence is allowed to poetry, and the story is cited of the rhymers who affirmed "that he cared not who made all the laws of a country if he might make all the ballads *," with tacit approbation of the opinion, yet Mr. Ensor candidly confesses that he does not recommend even *Magna Charta* as a fit subject for versification. The passage which follows is very sensible, in our estimation of it. Our readers shall judge:

'Let me here observe, that in communicating knowledge masters should endeavour to teach a few things well. This, however, is directly contrary to the modern practice, which attempts to give a smattering of many, or rather of all things. The bad effects of this mistaken endeavour are not merely that it tends to educate sciolists; but that for ever it destroys the power of fixing the attention. Condillac, and after him Dugald Stewart, affirmed that attention was a faculty of the human mind. No doubt it is one of the first consequence, and, like all faculties, it may be greatly impaired or greatly improved. Boys therefore should be taught to observe every thing that occurs:—this is a principal part of attention—but that part of attention to which I now refer, is continued persevering attention.

* This may be taken, in its literal and simple meaning, as a very natural poetical preference. Mr. E. quotes from Fletcher of Salton.

In this respect only Newton, it is said, discovered a peculiarity in himself; and in this respect I have observed most men extremely deficient. Attention is unknown to children and savages — it is even rarely found among the civilized. This is in some measure attributable to modern education, which promotes an incoherent, rambling, unreflecting curiosity.'

These remarks appear to us most important, and worth the attention of all the instructors of youth.

Having finished his observations on the reading part of education, Mr. E. proceeds with some strictures on writing. He considers the various modes of teaching the art, and seems disposed to reject any substitute for paper, as occasioning a loss of time, and therefore counteracting the design of economy. His remarks in page 285., concerning the *profession* of a letter-writer, as unknown in England, are not accurate; since, among the various modes of living in London, this is one. The Parisian inscription of "here are written all sorts of letters" is not indeed to be found in our metropolis; at least, *we believe* that it is not; and, certainly, we have not the Neapolitan table, at which letters are written, for those who cannot write themselves, in the open air: but we have our *scribes*; and many are the schemes of avarice, and many are the sighs of love, which are planned and breathed by the cockney trader or lover with the assistance of a hired pen. Credit, too, of a superior kind, is often gained by foreign penmanship, and the barren tree becomes fruitful; *Miraturque novas frondes, et non sua poma*. As to instruction in arithmetic, Mr. E. remarks 'that it would be a good exercise to require boys to answer numeral questions by performing the operation in their minds: in general, this mode of calculation is more useful than by applying to paper. It teaches readiness, and promotes dispatch.' Cleanliness, involving decency and order, is next inculcated. With respect to dress, it is simply but well observed that 'it is indifferent how a child is clothed, if he be not so scantily as to be chilled, or so excessively as to be oppressed.' Some plain and practical reflections succeed on diet, exercise, and medicine. The author now recommends the practice (lately made general in some schools, but in particular instances as old as any recorded system of education,) of the older boys teaching the younger; and he condemns, very properly, the practice of Lancaster in making mischievous boys the monitors or superintendants of the others. 'Method and regularity,' says Mr. E., 'should bring the order of a numerous school almost to the precision of a military machine. This regularity has also, beside the present, a prospective benefit. It begins a habit which tends, exceedingly, to advance every interest in every department of life.' — We should hope that

that the confinement of boys to their desks, and the not permitting any to leave school till *all* have said their lessons, (thus confounding slowness with quickness of intellect,) are in most schools, at this period, chimerical objects of Mr. E.'s satire: but we cannot agree with him in *all* that he says as to the inexpediency of teaching the elements of grammar, &c. at an early age. How is this to be avoided, to a certain degree? We cannot be accused of advising a premature attention to 'the crabbed and disgusting parts of language,'* as Mr. E. expresses himself: yet the memory must be exercised, and some stores laid in, even before their value can be duly appreciated. Still less can we accord with his objections to what he calls 'the dogmatical mode of instruction.' His own story (p. 297.) of Baldus, the pupil of Bartolus, puzzling his tutor with questions, should have taught him the impracticability of any such permission in a public lecture; yet he contends that either the use of lectures should be superseded by publication, (supposing that this could be done,) or that the scholars should be allowed to question their instructors: in the first instance, forgetting that all cannot be made to read who can be made to hear; and in the second instance, neglecting the warning which his own most generally applicable story above mentioned plainly gave him, that, in thus pitting tutor and pupil against each other before a tribunal of youth, he was wandering into Utopian regions of wisdom and benevolence.

The manner in which Mr. E. talks of all corporeal punishment in schools will excuse us from following him into that argument. We will only hint that, excepting perhaps in the case of very young pupils, we readily subscribe to the propriety of abolishing *flagellation*: but how can we be expected to reason, on the whole case, with a writer who is so outrageous as to declare, (p. 301.) that, 'when masters beat their scholars, it is to wreak a despot's vengeance on the weak and often on the innocent?' Difference of tempers will undoubtedly prevail among school-masters, as well as among other classes of men: but is this libel, this stigma, to be made general? Mr. Ensor's plan concludes with suggesting the expediency of every honourable encouragement and stimulus being applied, in order to excite and keep up the love of learning in the young; with asserting that they should be so gently treated as almost to be seduced into their duty; with advising their attendance at quarter-sessions, &c., that they may early learn the duties of jurymen, &c.; with inculcating, in short, practical instruction of every kind; and without a word, "good, bad, or indif-

* See our late Review of *Miss Edinour*, Rev. for February.

ferent," on the subject of religion. We leave Mr. E. to settle this account with himself; and our readers to make their own reflections on it.

ART. VIII. *The Ponderer*, a Series of Essays, Biographical, Literary, Moral, and Critical. By the Rev. John Evans, Master of the Academy, Lower Park Row, Bristol. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co., &c.

THE *Ponderer* is neither a pondered nor a ponderous work; still it is ponderable in the scales of criticism; and, if the balance oscillates occasionally in passing from paper to paper, on the whole it will be indicative of sufficient weight. These essays were originally published singly in the Bristol Mercury, and are now collected into a neat pocket-volume: they are thirty-five in number, and to the more interesting of them we shall allot a few remarks.

No. i. includes a biographical sketch of the Spanish poet Villegas. He was born in 1595, says Bouterweck*, but in 1596, says Mr. Evans, at Nagera in Castile. He was sent to study at Salamanca, and was admired as the best poet of the University: but it was college-poetry that he wrote, libidinous imitations of Anacreon, Catullus, and Horace. Young men of high rank took an interest in his productions; which, at twenty-three years of age, he was encouraged to collect, and permitted to dedicate to Philip III. Like Catullus, he has recorded experimental observations on human nature, which a man may earn a halter by making for himself; so that it is surprizing that the Inquisition should have tolerated the publication of these poems. Of their licentious character, the author of the *Ponderer*, though he hazards a criticism at p. 3., says nothing; so that we much suspect he had read only the life, or only a castrated edition, of the poet of his predilection. Villegas was brought up to the law, wrote on the Theodosian code, and obtained a sort of town-clerkship in his native place, which maintained him rather narrowly until 1669, when he died. Some classical dissertations, and a translation of Boethius, attest his habits of composition and labour.

No. iv. treats of the influence of poverty in producing capital crimes. We think that the author overlooks the vast influence of organic tendencies; some persons exhibiting in their very infancy an obvious predisposition to anger, to cruelty, or even to lewdness, which last might be suspected to be an instinct of later growth and origin. He seems also to overlook

* See our last *Appendix*, Art. I.

the vast influence of habits derived from imitation. Industry, idleness, order, anarchy, probity, robbery, kindness to animals, and brutality, are all habits common to entire families, to entire generations, to entire nations of men, and are but slowly learned or unlearned by any individual. The military habits, lately superinduced on the people of this country, have augmented the courage, the idleness, and the sensuality of the poor, and have probably been a great cause of increased criminality. — On the whole, this paper, especially the earlier half, has merit: but, as organic tendencies, and vital habits, are both formed independently of precept, reformers must, alas! rest content with an imperfect and a slow control.

We are directed in No. viii. to the law of libel, and its pernicious influence over the freedom of the press. In our judgment, the juries are more to blame than the laws. Since Mr. Fox's declaratory bill, no doubt can remain respecting the right of juries to determine whether, under all the circumstances of the case, a wise nation would chuse to consider the offensive words as criminal. They are free to give, as the verdict of the country, their own opinion; and if ever it becomes really expedient to correct the abuses of power by the interposition of the popular voice, juries will be found to acquit those whom now they check in the career of premature jealousies and antipathies.

No. xvi. contains a description of Brockley-coombe in Somersetshire, part of which we will extract:

‘ In my excursion to this little scene of rural attraction, my friend Mr. H****, who, to an enthusiastic fondness for whatever is great or beautiful in nature, adds the enviable talent of transferring the images of that greatness and beauty to canvas, was so obliging as to accompany me. The morning was foggy, but brightened as it advanced. The road to the village of Brockley, which is about nine miles from Bristol, leads through Long-Ashton, and access to the Coombe is immediately obtained from the main road, through a large gate, almost opposite the mansion of its wealthy proprietor. I do not know how to give a better general idea of the place than by saying, it is an immense chasm in the mountain, winding for a mile and a half, or somewhat more, and terminating on a range of fine heathy downs. But what constitutes the principal charm of this delightful glen, is the circumstance of its being so abundantly enriched with wood. It is a kind of paradise, which the sylvan deities would be pleased to call their own. Trees of all shapes and characters, are here scattered in the most interesting confusion. The young aspiring ash mixes its elegant foliage with that of the oak; whilst the ivy, and the more gay and flowering shrubs, by wreathing their tendrils round the trunks and branches of the more naked trees, bestow an additional grace on the whole. One side of the Coombe is a lofty mass of limestone-rock; yet this rock is so profusely ornamented with vegetation, as to resemble a garden fantasti-

cally suspended in the air. Some of the rocks on the summit of these cliffs were finely illuminated, resembling, in detached portions, the fortifications of a city in the distance. The rays of the sun broke in through several openings amongst the trees, and cast upon the variegated foliage, on the ground, on the broken masses of stone, and on whatever object they chanced to fall, a beautifully transparent golden light, which the painter knows how to appreciate in nature, perhaps, better than other men, and to appropriate to the purposes of art.'

No. xvii. examines the merits of three female writers on education. Miss More is represented as excessive, and Miss Edgeworth as defective, in religious zeal; and Miss Hamilton is applauded for that semi-credulity, or semi-liberality, which coincides with the personal persuasions of the present author. Instead, however, of adopting this method of valuing books by the writer's creed, it might have been better for Mr. Evans to consider that a higher force of intellect has been displayed by Miss Edgeworth than by Miss More, and by Miss More than by Miss Hamilton; and that hence should have been constituted the principal standard of appreciation.

No. xx. includes an interesting Memoir of W. I. Roberts of Bristol, of whose poems and letters we gave an ample account in our Number for January 1812, p. 60., and who unfortunately died of pulmonary consumption at the age of twenty-one.

In No. xxiv. we have a history, under feigned names, which is valuable from its entire fidelity. The narrative is also romantic, and will interest :

'To a mind richly furnished with the discoveries of science, and highly polished by literature, my friend Donville has added powers for conversation, as varied as inexhaustible. Donville, more than any man I have ever known, possesses the happy art of conveying instruction without the least appearance of formality, of giving perspicuity to the most difficult subjects, and interest to the most familiar; and as he is in an eminent degree an original, as well as a profound thinker, he seldom fails to give some degree of novelty, even to topics which are the subjects of every day's discussion, and which, from familiarity, have lost their claim to attention. With these qualities to please and to instruct, Donville seems to possess an innate love for conversation; but I have frequently heard him declare, that this faculty has been acquired, principally from a sense of duty; because he has always considered it an obligation upon every social being, to bring his proportion of amusement or instruction to the social circle.

'Of Donville's ancestors he knows nothing, and even of his father but little, as he never remembers having seen him but once, and then he was scarcely more than four years of age. His mother is the natural daughter of a nobleman, by whom she was early consigned to a respectable seminary for instruction; but beyond this never knew a father's care, and consequently never experienced the sympathy of parental

parental affection. Thus surrounded by strangers, to whom her little joys and sorrows were equally uninteresting, she was compelled to feel, think, and act for herself—to derive her pleasures from her own resources, and to rely entirely upon the exertion of her own powers in all cases of emergency. From an education in these peculiar circumstances, she acquired at a very early period a degree of decision of character, and force of intellect, which in circumstances apparently more propitious, are seldom acquired even during life.

* Maria Donville, however, (for that is the name of my worthy friend's mother) exquisitely felt the vacuity of heart, which is always the bitter portion of those who are attached to life by no domestic or social ties. Often has she thrilled my soul with exquisite, but indescribable sensations, when in the glowing language of feeling she has painted the wretchedness of existence, with a consciousness that its pleasures and pains excite no interest, beyond the ordinary round of unmeaning compliment or affectation; and that if to-morrow should consign it to oblivion, no congenial or feeling mind would drop a tear of genuine sympathy upon its grave. With these feelings, it can excite no surprise that she listened to the dictates of passion, rather than prudence, and bestowed her hand with such apparent precipitation, that she pronounced the irrevocable vow of matrimony at fifteen; and before she was sixteen, became the mother of my friend George; then, says she, "for the first time, I felt that life has endearments, which not only render it tolerable, but attach us to existence; and thus is the love of life, like every other affection, generated by the association of pleasure in possession, or in promise."

* The little I have ever heard of my friend's father is, that at the period of his marriage, he was scarcely more than twenty-one, and was then a student in the Temple—that his fortune, even with moderate wants, and regulated wishes, was no more than a competency, and that, notwithstanding his expectations had been considerable, his marriage having been deemed imprudent by the wealthy children of pecuniary calculation, they were never realized. His mind was adorned with every elegant, as well as useful, accomplishment; his heart the seat of benevolence; and his conduct, as a husband and a father, uniformly regulated by affectionate sympathy. His health, however, was delicate in the extreme, and immoderate application to those severe studies, without which it is impossible for a barrister to obtain distinction, deprived his family and the world, at the age of twenty-six, of those talents, which would infallibly have raised him to that eminence, which his virtues peculiarly qualified him to adorn.

* Besides my friend George, a daughter was also the offspring of this marriage. With these two children, and with an income, at best, but limited, Mrs. Donville had to contend with the cares and anxieties of the world, a widow at the age of twenty. Her first care was to ascertain her income with the nicest precision, and then to assume a real independence, by making it more than sufficient for her wants. For no maxim is so indisputably certain, as that independence does not arise from extent of income, but from proportion of expenditure;

and that the man who calls himself the master of thousands, is but a poor dependent, if these proportions are violated.

' In the contemplation of Mrs. Douville, the bitterest ingredient in the cup of poverty was ignorance ; and to save her children from this real evil, constituted her greatest solicitude. To accommodate herself to the narrowness of her circumstances, she determined to undertake their entire education, and had already resolved that, as far as the mind was concerned, no distinction should exist in the acquisitions either of her son or daughter. Having thus determined, it became immediately necessary to acquire the requisite knowledge of the classics, mathematical science, and the several branches of a liberal education. These she studied with all that enthusiasm, which is an indubitable characteristic of genius ; with unabating ardour, and indefatigable industry. Her own progress, and that of her pupils, exceeded even her most sanguine expectations ; and as she had herself so recently experienced the difficulties of acquisition, she was peculiarly qualified to remove them ; for in this extraordinary course of education, it frequently occurred that the preceptress acquired the morning's lesson by an application protracted from the preceding evening till midnight. These exertions were extraordinary ; and ample have been their remuneration, since they have been the means of procuring every member of this amiable family, virtue, wisdom, reputation, and competency ; and these, it must be acknowledged, constitute ingredients in the highest felicity which humanity is capable of enjoying.'

No. xxix. contains a biographical sketch of the learned John Henderson, who was born at Limerick in 1756, but settled at Bristol, and died at Oxford in 1788. From what we have heard related in conversation, we conceive this to be but an imperfect and deficient account. We quote some passages :

' It appears that Henderson's father kept a boarding-school near Bristol, and that Henderson assisted him in teaching the classics. How long he continued this occupation is not mentioned ; but it is certain that he was afterwards a member of Pembroke-college, Oxford, where he took the degree of bachelor of arts, and in which it is probable he long discharged the important duties of a tutor.—

' The favourite studies of Henderson were mathematics, astronomy, theology, chemistry, and metaphysics ; but it does not appear that he studied this last science in the luminous writings of Locke, and his illustrious disciple Hartley, but amidst the reveries of the schoolmen, and the subtilities of Thomas A'Quinas. That these laborious trifles should have been confounded with the science of mind, during the ages of darkness, is by no means extraordinary ; but we surely have a right to expect, that these should no longer receive the denomination of metaphysics, from any who make the least pretensions to accuracy of discrimination.

' But among the favourite studies of Henderson, his attachment to the occult sciences of Magic and Astrology, must not be omitted : nor his fondness for Physiognomy, the deductions of which he contended were indubitably scientific, and to which he adhered with all the

the pertinacity of Lavater. If the love of singularity prompted him to the pursuit of these chimeras, it exhibits a lamentable instance of the weakness of a great mind ; but if the motive were to exhaust every subject, which has obtained the appellation of science, it entitles him to admiration.

His knowledge of languages extended to the Persian, Arabic, Hebrew, Greek, Latin, and Saxon, together with the French, Spanish, Italian, and German. Of the majority of these languages, he is described as not only being acquainted with the grammatical construction, in such a degree as to read them with facility, but also to have known them with an intimacy, that qualified him to converse in them with fluency.

Whether his professed belief in the occult sciences, in Platonism, and in various sorts of magic, was the weakness of incipient insanity, or the bigotry of exclusive study, or the exoteric affectation of a mind prone to paradox, is here left undecided. His conversation was so splendid as to have merited the record of a Boswell ; and *Hendersoniana*, of some value, might yet be collected among his old companions. Perhaps he wore a coarse cloak of superstition, in order to conceal a philosophy which was too bold for the tolerance of his associates.

In No. xxxii. is given a Memoir of Dr. Caleb Evans, (a relative, we believe, if not the father, of the present author,) known by some tracts in controversy with Dr. Priestley, concerning the Atonement.

No. xxxiii. agreeably defends the doctrine of the *perfectibility* of the human race : but this term is too strong, since it allows hope to soar beyond the ken of reason. The perpetually progressive character of the social man is here said to have been first advanced by Priestley, embraced by Franklin and Price, and exaggerated to incredibility by Condorcet and Godwin. Individual reformation is admitted to be the most promising basis of general amendment.

These essays, without any distinguishing quality of matter or style, are collectively agreeable, since they are well composed, and arranged with an attention to variety. After having adorned a provincial newspaper, they may justly contend for a more extensive circulation ; and the volume is adapted to form one of those light parlour-table companions which are taken up during the shorter intervals of application ; which it is welcome to open, and not painful to close ; which have a convenient disunion of topic, and a meritorious morality of sentiment. To the young author, we might apply the lines of Pope :

“ Distrustful sense with modest caution speaks ;
It still looks home, and short excursions makes.”

In one of the papers, (No. xxxii.) Mr. Evans announces as his next literary task, "Memoirs of eminent Persons connected by Birth or Residence with Bristol." This enterprize appears to us well adapted to the character of his skill, and to be of useful example to the country. Each of our great provincial towns should undertake a local *Biographicon*; since many lives occur which deserve preservation, though not adapted for a national dictionary by the local character of their utility, or the secondary importance of their efforts; and which, in such provincial lists, would find their proper place, and thence lend a convenient illustration to the researches of the antiquary or the genealogist.

ART. IX. *Letters on the Nicobar Islands, their Natural Productions, and the Manners, Customs, and Superstitions of the Natives; with an Account of an Attempt made by the Church of the United Brethren, to convert them to Christianity. Addressed by the Rev. John Gottfried Haensel (the only surviving Missionary) to the Rev. C. I. Latrobe. 8vo. 3s. Hatchard, &c.*

As far as the mission is concerned, this account is afflicting in the extreme. During the short period of its existence, eleven worthy missionaries fell a sacrifice to the unhealthiness of the climate, on the spot; and, shortly after the return of the others to Tranquebar, when the object of conversion was abandoned in these islands, thirteen more perished, and the only surviving missionary, the author of these letters, still feels the effects of the Nicobar ague; which he will probably carry to his grave. The Nicobar islands, which are situated at the entrance of the Bay of Bengal in 8° N. lat., and 94° 20' E. long. north of Sumatra, were first visited by the mission in 1758, and finally relinquished in 1789, the endeavours of the brethren having 'totally failed.' When the particulars here stated are considered, the amiable perseverance of the missionaries will be more a matter of surprize than their want of success: since the inhabitants of these islands have not yet reached that state of civilization which must precede the successful preaching of the Gospel; and the facts here recorded shew the good sense of the Quakers, who, in their plans for the conversion of savages, aim in the first place at leading them to adopt the pursuits and habits of civilized man. To proclaim the truths of Christianity to such half humanized beings as the inhabitants of the Nicobar islands is indeed "to throw pearls before swine." Mr. Haensel's sketch of their character will confirm this opinion. He not merely represents them as 'addicted to the vilest lusts without any sense of shame,' but as so destitute of every religious senti-

ment that 'they have not even a word in their language to express their idea of God.' It is added, moreover, that these islanders do not desire to know any thing about their Creator.

'When we told them,' (continues this missionary,) 'that we were come hither for no other purpose but to make them acquainted with their Creator and Redeemer, and to bring them the glad tidings of salvation; and begged them only to take it to heart, and reflect on what we thus made known to them in the name of God, they laughed at us. They observed, that they could not believe that the sufferings of one man could atone for the sins of another; and therefore, if they were wicked, what we told them of a crucified Saviour would not help them: but they insisted that they were good by nature, and never did any thing wrong, as we well knew.' (P. 50.)

Speaking of those who found their graves in these islands, the surviving missionary represents them as sowing seed in a barren soil; and his own attempts to preach the Gospel in the three years of his stay are described as 'fruitless;' yet at p. 69. he ventures to think that the inhabitants of the Nicobar islands are 'not the most hopeless subjects.' In stating the obstacles to the success of the mission, he enumerates the difficulty of learning the Nicobar language, the unhealthiness of the climate, and the mode of life of the missionaries; who were forced, in clearing and planting ground, to submit to great exertions: but the chief obstacle was the difficulty of making themselves understood; for 'I must add,' says Mr. H., 'that not one of us ever learnt the Nicobar language so perfectly as to be able clearly to explain the will of God concerning our salvation to the natives.' It appears, however, by a former extract, that they so far succeeded as to give the natives some idea of *atonement*: but, if they learnt the language spoken in these islands so imperfectly as we are here told, Mr. H. may be mistaken in that representation. Be this, however, as it may, we cannot help lamenting that so many amiable men should have sacrificed their lives to so little purpose; and we trust that no indiscreet zeal will send others on the same errand to this unhealthy region, till a fairer prospect opens than was presented to the Danish missionaries.

When the impression made by the melancholy details of the mission subsides, the reader will obtain much pleasure from Mr. H.'s instructive accounts of the scenery, productions, &c. of these islands. The appearance of the country is thus described:

'The most of these islands are hilly, and some of the mountains of considerable height: but Tricut, Tafouin, and Kar Nicobar, are flat, and covered with forests of cocoa trees. The other islands have likewise a large proportion of cocoa and areca palms, and an immense quantity

quantity of timber trees of various kinds, some of them of enormous size. All the vallies and sides of the hills, to a considerable height, are thickly covered with them, insomuch, that the light of the sun has not been able for ages to penetrate through their foliage. They are in many places so closely interwoven with immense quantities of rattan and bush-ropes, that they appear as it were spun together; and it is almost perfectly dark in the woods. Most of the plants and trees bear fruit, which falls down and rots. All these circumstances contribute to render the climate very unhealthy, the free current of air being wholly impeded; even the natives experience their baneful effects, but, to a European constitution, they are of the most dangerous nature.'

Among the reptiles, serpents obtain particular notice. Several of them are enumerated by Mr. H., but one in particular struck him as a singular species:

'It is of a green colour, has a broad head and mouth like a frog; very red eyes, and its bite is so venomous, that I saw a woman die within half an hour after receiving the wound. She had climbed a high tree in search of fruit, and not observing the animal among the branches, was suddenly bitten in the arm. Being well aware of the danger, she immediately descended, but, on reaching the ground, reeled to and fro like one in a state of intoxication. The people brought her immediately to me; and while I was applying blisters and other means for extracting the poison, she died under my hands.'

Not only has Mr. H. described those swallows' nests which are so highly prized by Indian epicures, but he has ventured to suggest an opinion respecting the material of which they are composed; and in this view his observations are worthy of being transcribed:

'Of birds, I shall only notice one, called by some the Nicobar swallow, but I will not venture to determine its generic character. It is the builder of those eatable nests, which constitute one of the luxuries of an Indian banquet. These birds are called *Hinlene* by the natives, and build in fissures and cavities of rocks, especially in such as open to the south. In the latter, the finest and whitest nests are found, and I have sometimes gathered fifty pounds weight of them, on one excursion for that purpose. They are small, and shaped like swallows' nests. If they are perfect, 72 of them go to a *catty*, or 1½ pounds. The best sale for them is in China. After the most diligent investigation, I was never able fully to discover of what substance they are made, nor do any of the opinions of naturalists, with which I have become acquainted, appear satisfactory to me, neither have the authors alluded to ever seen the birds. They have remarkably short legs, and are unable to rise, if they once fall or settle on the ground. I caught many in this state, and after examining them, threw them up into the air, when they immediately flew away; they cannot therefore, as some suppose, obtain their materials on the coast, or from rocks in the sea. My opinion is, that the nests are made

made of the gum of a peculiar tree, called by some the Nicobar cedar, and growing in great abundance in all the southern islands. Its wood is hard, black, and very heavy. From December to May, it is covered with blossom, and bears a fruit somewhat resembling a cedar or pine-apple, but more like a large berry full of eyes or pustules, discharging a gum or resinous fluid. About these trees, when in bloom or bearing fruit, I have seen innumerable flocks of these little birds, flying and fluttering like bees round a tree or shrub in full flower, and am of opinion, that they there gather the materials for their nests. I relate the fact, having often watched them with great attention, but will not venture to affirm, that I have made a full discovery.

Other curious particulars occur in these letters, which are written with great simplicity, and with every appearance of truth: but we must not farther purloin from Mr. H.'s pages. Before, however, we part company, we shall beg him to accept our thanks for the entertainment which he has afforded us; and we can sincerely assure him that we wish, in return for his clear account of the Nicobar islands, that we could free him from the effects of the Nicobar fever.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JULY, 1813.

LAW.

Art. 10. *A Treatise on the Principles and Practice of the Action of Ejectment*, and the resulting Action for Mesne Profits. By John Adams, of the Middle Temple. 8vo. pp. 378. 10s. 6d. Boards, Longman and Co. 1812.

If we have not here a complete treatise, the deficiency is more owing to the singular nature of the subject than to a want of exertion and abilities on the part of the author. Too many remains of an obsolete system, and too many rules which are derived from other times, still adhere to this important head of law, to allow of its being exhibited with neatness and compactness; and the common law still savours too much of its origin, to furnish subjects for finished disquisitions. When we overlook the uncouthness of the topic before us, and only seek information that is of practical use, we are surprised to find so much within so small a compass. The author observes that the class of cases in this action, in which titles are discussed, is unprecedented in magnitude. Although he declines to enter fully into them, he treats these nice points by no means sparingly; and although he is studiously concise, he is never obscure. The student will therefore find this work a valuable guide; and the young lawyer will rarely be disappointed in his search for those points which occur in his practice.

Art.

Art. 11. *An Historical Account of the Laws enacted against the Catholics, both in England and Ireland; of the Amelioration which they have undergone during the present Reign, and of their existing State. To which is added, A short Account of the Laws for the Punishment of Heresy in general; a brief Review of the Merits of the Catholic Question, and copious Notes, tending principally to illustrate the Views and Conduct of the Church of England, the Presbyterians, and Sectarians, with regard to Toleration, when in the Enjoyment of Power.* By John Baldwin Brown, Esq., of the Inner Temple. 8vo. pp. 366. and Notes, pp. 180. 14s. Boards. Underwood and Blacks. 1813.

We regret that we were unable to introduce this well digested and dispassionate publication to the notice of our readers, while the late measure for extending religious liberty was in agitation. When the bigots were making every effort to perpetuate the infancy of that liberty, and the thralldom of the sects, numerous advocates were not wanting who rendered abundant justice to the cause of society, and who vindicated the rights of conscience; and among these honourable and virtuous champions, the writer before us claims no mean rank, since learning, judgment, temper, and industry, equally unite in recommending this respectable volume. No party is here spared, but each sect receives the censure which it has incurred, and praise is bestowed only on the advocates of truth and liberty. In the author's manner of treating his subject, justice appears clearly to be the foundation of the measure; while union, strength, and harmony are its obvious and invaluable fruits.

When the matter comes again to be agitated, we shall hope that this volume may have a wide circulation. He who will carefully peruse it will make himself master of the subject, and have no difficulty in determining how to act in this very important concern. Justice to individuals, the strength of the nation, and the peace of society, point the same way. Persecution extinguishes the love of country, produces heart-burnings and divisions, obliges the oppressed to look to foreign aid, and has frequently occasioned the dissolution of states. Why should we expect to be more fortunate than those whose follies and delinquencies we copy?

Art. 12. *The Debates upon the Bills for abolishing the Punishment of Death, for stealing to the Amount of Forty Shillings in a Dwelling House; for stealing to the Amount of Five Shillings privately in a Shop; and for stealing on navigable Rivers.* By Basil Montagu, Esq. 8vo. pp. 179. 5s. Longman and Co. 1811.

We have already paid our tribute to the efforts made by Sir Samuel Romilly to purify our criminal code, and fix it on just and true principles. His isolated acts for this purpose are represented as part of a plan for new-modelling the whole code, and we sincerely hope that the charge is well founded, for it is so far from being to us a subject of alarm that it gives us the most genuine pleasure. The debates here detailed contain all the leading ideas relative to the subject, though they present themselves in a desultory and unconnected manner: but we value this tract less for its actual matter than for its tendency

tendency to keep alive the recollection of a subject which we trust will never be suffered to rest, till the criminal code is at last placed on a par with the other branches of our legislation.

Art. 13. *The Opinions of different Authors upon the Punishment of Death.* Selected by Basil Montague, Esq., of Lincoln's Inn. Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 401. 12s. Bds. Longman and Co. 1812.

How highly we approve these labours of Mr. Montague, we have more than once taken occasion to state *. On the subject which is considered in the volume before us, our instincts speak a decisive language; while our reason, if we calmly and dispassionately consult it, presents us with conclusions altogether different. If we obey authority, or listen to argument, we shall find nothing to bear us out in the sentiment which is generally regarded as the dictate of nature on this subject, but which is, in reality, the suggestion of resentment from which men do not allow themselves sufficiently to cool.

At present, we only invite the reader to exercise his mind on this topic; which, at all events, can do no harm. As on all other questions of criminal jurisprudence, so we would say on this, that severity is not the most effectual mode of deterring: but, were we to allow that Death is in itself a proportionate and fit punishment, it would be incumbent on us to examine whether we are competent to inflict it; whether the Almighty has not reserved to himself such visitations; and whether the security of society may not be as well and even better maintained without such revolting expedients. From these investigations, it is true, we look for fruits, but we indulge not the hope of gathering them at an early day. It is well known that a neighbour, far behind us in culture, has beheld this doctrine reduced into practice: but that neighbour, it must be remembered, lived under an arbitrary sovereign; while in this country we must await the progress of conviction. It is as promoting and accelerating this high object, that we applaud the efforts before us: but, while we cheerfully do this, we can bestow no commendation on the doleful preface which introduces the present volume. When the object is to discuss the great subject which is treated in these pages, to us it appears ill-judged to attempt to work on our feelings, and to unman us. When we sit down to this important inquiry, our faculties should be in the utmost vigour, reason should have fair play, and be permitted fairly to draw its conclusions. If we are told dismal tales, we suspect that they are designed to impose on us; and we commence the discussion with minds affected by suspicion. If we take not away the life of the murderer and traitor, we are influenced not by pity and humanity, but by the dry calculations and the strict inferences of reason. Into the consideration of this topic, therefore, we see no occasion to press *sentiment*: if reason will not effect what we desire, we may be assured that we ought not to succeed.

All the selections in this volume are appropriate, while some of them are derived from the first pens, and are consummate displays

* See our account of his former volume, &c.

of ingenuity and reasoning. The following is a list of the authors from whom they are taken: Roscoe, Pastoret, Montesquieu, Rousseau, Beccaria, Mably, Filangieri, Bentham, Coke, Burgh, Pistorius, Raleigh, Brown, Howard, Hume, Currie, Wrangham, Moore, the Tuscan Law, Dr. Forde, Meredith, *Philopatris Varvicensis* (Parr).

From the monopoly of praise bestowed by the editor on Lord Bacon, we might think that he had never heard of Galileo and Gassendi; and that he was a stranger to the admirable preface to the *Encyclopedie*, which, for practical use, has superseded the *De Augmentis Scientiarum* and the *Novum Organum*. — Vol. III. of these *Opinions* has just been advertised.

P O E T R Y.

Art. 14. *Jokeby*, a Burlesque on Rokeby; a Poem in Six Cantos. By an Amateur of Fashion. To which are added occasional Notes by our most popular Characters. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Tegg. 1813.

All that is stupid in conceit, vulgar in expression, and dirty in sentiment, combines to degrade this little volume. The notorious truism of the poet, that

“Gentle dullness ever loves a joke,”

only half accounts for the origin of such a burlesque. The joke must be perfect in obscenity, and excessive in worthlessness, that can satisfy the writer of ‘*Jokeby*.’ We shall not disgust our readers with any quotations: but we assure them that almost every page would justify our reproof.

Art. 15. *Autumnal Reflections*, a Poem in blank Verse, with a few other Pieces. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Gale and Curtis. 1813.

This picture of the declining year is poetically and impressively delineated: but the subject has been so hackneyed, both by the poet and the moralist, that it is difficult to introduce any new object into the landscape, or to draw from it any new reflection. In the following passage, which is no unfair specimen, the author sketches the discriminating features of the four seasons:

‘Swift fly the Seasons round! scarce had the Spring
Danced on the plain, in virgin garb array’d
Of tenderest green, and bound with flowerets pale
Her beauteous brow, or round the welkin flung
Her first faint purple flush — like that sweet hour
When first the virgin’s cheek the vermeil blush
Of youth assumes, and hovering graces play
Around her lovely form, — when Summer came,
Mature in finish’d grace; of darker stain
The flowers that gem’d her crown; her ample robe
Luxuriant floated in the spicy gale.
She bade the grove a deeper dye assume; —
The full-blown rose expand; — the juicy corn
Raise high its dark-green blade; — with arid hue
Imbrown’d the mead; — and tinged the ripening ear
With golden glow, or shade of silky brown.

Thc

Then Autumn mild, with matron-step, advanced
 Slow o'er the bearded plain; a purple bough,
 With swelling clusters hung, her left hand graced;
 Her right, the gather'd sheaf; low-drooping, waved
 The ripe and yellow ears; September's moon
 Shed its soft radiance on her sun-burnt cheek,
 And, while at distance rose the reaper's song,
 Loose flow'd her auburn locks, her dark eye smiled.
 But, while I gazed, a melancholy charm
 Over her features stole; the golden grain,
 The nectar'd branch, she dropp'd; lo! now she roves,
 A widow'd mourner, through the stubble-fields,
 And culls a garland sad, of yellow leaves,
 And berries red, her thoughtful brow to bind;
 Weeping her honours lost, her children slain:
 And soon shall Winter, with unsparing hand,
 The last sad relics of her race destroy,
 And reign, the tyrant of the vanquish'd year.'

In the old style of moralizing, the life of man is compared to this picture of the year; and the motto from Isaiah, "we all do fade as a leaf," helps to give effect to the whole.

The subjoined compositions are inferior in poetical merit to the *Autumnal Reflections*.

NOVELS.

Art. 16. *A Sequel to Catebs*; or the Stanley Letters: containing Observations on Religion and Morals; with Anecdotes founded on Fact. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Jones. 1812.

More religious courtship, and more *outré* than even the *erotico-orthodoxico* work to which it professes to be a sequel! Here Cupid with his bow and arrow is made to take the field against infidelity and impiety; and he being known to be a very powerful young person, it may be deemed by the evangelical party a great political stroke to gain over so all-subduing an ally: but it does not seem to have occurred to the contrivers of this new scheme of making short work with the Deists, that Love is full of wiles, and that he will probably teach his votaries, when it is necessary as a counter *ruse de guerre*, to make religion the mere stalking-horse to matrimony. A good intention pervades the mind of the author of these letters; and his desire to promote the cause of genuine piety and gospel-holiness is much to be commended: but we feel it to be a duty to hint to him our opinion that his scheme is calculated to disgust some young people, and to make hypocrites of others. Let young ladies be trained up with a most sacred reverence for religion, but let them be natural. Who would credit any miss in her teens, if, after having been introduced to her lover, a handsome young man of fortune, she were to write in the strain which Celia Stanley thus addresses to Dr. Barlow after an interview with Edward Sedley, her admirer?

'Although I am provoked with myself for being so much pleased with him, you may depend on my faithful adherence to your rules never to give up my affections to any man wanting "the goodly pearl."

of great price," to purchase which the wise merchantman went and sold "all that he had."

Edward Sedley, finding from Dr. Barlow what is the sort of card which he has to play, is, without loss of time, transformed from an infidel libertine into the very serious character which Celia wished to find in a husband. He is sent into the country by Dr. B. to read Butler's *Analogy* and Lardner's *Credibility*; and these heavy books, not very well calculated for the perusal of a gay young man, effect his complete conversion, though in what way we are not told: for Sedley offers no remarks on the metaphysics of Butler, nor on the critical researches of Lardner. Several infidel-characters are introduced, who (like Sedley) are all converted: but their conversion is accomplished with too much ease and rapidity to be credible. By courage, and the use of proper weapons, Satan may no doubt be vanquished: but he rarely surrenders a fortress of which he has gotten possession, at the first summons, without firing a gun. — We have classed this publication among novels: but it is entirely of a religious cast; and the letters are strewn with more texts of Scripture than are to be found in some volumes of modern sermons.

Art. 17. *Tales of Fashionable Life.* By Miss Edgeworth; Vols. IV. V. and VI. 2d Edition. 12mo. 1l. 1s. Boards Johnson and Co. 1812.

These volumes have already obtained great popularity, for though Miss Edgeworth never allows her readers to lose sight of the lesson which she gives them, she employs so much wit in its illustration that they are always amused as well as admonished. If, indeed, Miss E. fails any where, we think that she fails chiefly in plot. Her descriptions and characters are full of nature, and insure sympathy: but the story, on which she grafts these admirable delineations, is often improbable, and seems to be an after-thought; so that we are inclined to appeal from it to Miss Edgeworth herself in her happier vein of writing: like the condemned Macedonian who referred his cause "to Philip when fasting."

The latter part of the tale called 'The Absentees' may prove the truth of this remark, since the discoveries and events, which conclude Lord Colambre's residence in England, are such as may be found more easily in ordinary novels than in real life; and it does not well accord with his character to abandon the proposed match with Miss Nugent, merely because he hears that a stigma attaches on her birth. Whenever the scene lies in Ireland, this tale is delightful; it excites great interest for the poorer Irish; and it represents their situation as so deplorable when their landlord is an *absentee*, that we hope they may obtain some relief from this exhibition of their sufferings.

The story of *Vivian* affords an excellent lesson to those yielding spirits who dare not be faithful to their own convictions; and that of *Emilie de Coulanges* contains a French female character inimitably sketched, and has also the merit of exposing a fault "to which the good and generous are liable."

To correct those errors which are compatible with good intentions is a task more useful than that of displaying the effects or punishments of

of vice ; and it affords great scope for the acumen and observation which eminently distinguish Miss Edgeworth's writings. We therefore hear with pleasure that another " Tale of Fashionable Life," on the subject of *Patronage*, may shortly be expected from her pen.

CATHOLIC QUESTION.

Art. 18. *A full View of the Roman Catholic Question*, shewing first, by an Inquiry into the Principles on which exclusions in General are justifiable ; secondly, by their application to the Case before us ; and, as well from general Experience as the particular History and Circumstances of Ireland, that the Claims of the Roman Catholics rest on no Foundation of Right or Justice ; nor would their Gratification in any Degree allay the Discontents of Ireland. By a Country Gentleman. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale, Jun. 1813.

According to this country-gentleman, too much has already been conceded to the Catholics ; and in course, rather than grant them farther privileges, he would curtail those which the liberal spirit of the legislature has extended to them. We cannot think, however, that his pamphlet is calculated to impress cool and dispassionate reasoners with this sentiment. The sketch here given of the history and circumstances of Ireland shews that the inhabitants of that country have been neglected ; and this neglect, though it may account for their imperfect civilization and irritated feelings, cannot be stated in fair argument to prove that a large proportion of them ought to be excluded from the blessings of the constitution. A nation is rarely ungrateful to the government which treats it with justice, and fosters it with kindness. Yet this writer pretends to be full of apprehensions from the desired adoption of a mild and comprehensive system ; represents those disqualifying statutes of which the Catholics complain, as ' barriers planted against civil discord ;' and urges ' their total exclusion from political power, *without intolerance and persecution*, as our truest policy.' How they can be totally excluded from political power, or how they can be thus proscribed, without intolerance, it may be difficult to shew. It is certain that every description of subjects, so proscribed, must regard their case as insufferably hard. Let us attend to the curious argument by which their exclusion is justified : ' because no one can reasonably talk of a *right* to political power,' therefore no man or body of men can justly complain of being cut off from the very possibility of ever enjoying it : but this *because* is not within a league of the question at issue. The King has a right to the services of all his people ; and all his people, in a general view of the case, are eligible by him to political power. *One* has not any more *right* than *another* ; all, however, are eligible to the blessings of the constitution, provided that they are good subjects. The question here is, Ought a religious belief, which differs from the established faith, to cause a man to be regarded as a bad subject ? Is uniformity of religious faith necessary to perfect civil union ? The opinion of the most enlightened statesmen at home and abroad asserts that it is not ; that Protestants and Catholics can be safely included in one civil though not in one ecclesiastical fold ; and that the solid

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they separate; and that similar superciliousness and heart-burnings occasionally display themselves in Protestant churches, towards those who take the liberty of dissenting from them. A certain learned Professor has indeed shewn as much reluctance to act with Protestant Dissenters in the distribution of the Bible, as the Roman Catholic Board in the case before us have manifested against acting with the Protestant Bible-Society for the distribution of the Catholic versions of the Scriptures among the poor members of the Catholic church; but, to the eternal honour of our Established Church, a great majority of its members rejected the narrow sentiments of the Professor, and cheerfully united with all those in the distribution of the Bible, who, though differing in some points, alike received it as the only rule of life and doctrine. Unfortunately, the Catholics attach not that high and exclusive importance to the documents of the Old and New Testament which Protestants, on principle, are led to assign to them; and being in the habit of quoting other authorities, they are unwilling to rest their cause on the sole evidence of the Bible: but, considering the liberal sentiments lately professed by the Catholics; coupling these with a proposal made by the Catholic Board to edit for gratuitous distribution a version of the Bible in the common tongue, for the general use of their own body; and considering also that the Bible, if it did not contain the whole mass of authorities to which they were in the habit of appealing, could not be supposed to be hostile to the true Christian faith; it was fair to suppose that they would not be adverse to joining with Protestants in a plan for the circulation of their own translation of the Holy Scriptures. What, however, was the fact? The Protestant Society for the Distribution of Catholic Bibles apply to the Catholic Board, and to Catholic Bishops, for their concurrence in this generous project: the proposition is received with coldness, and finally rejected; and it was perceived at last that 'the Catholics were indisposed to approximate one hair's breadth towards the Protestants.' It was found that 'the advertisement from the Catholic Board, relative to a gratuitous distribution of the Holy Scriptures, operated as a complete deception upon the Protestant public; for it was concluded that, as only the Holy Scriptures were mentioned in the advertisement, they were to be given without notes; especially without notes which must be highly irritating to Protestants: but it came out, in consequence of the correspondence and conferences of the Protestant friends of the plan with some members of the Catholic Board and clergy, that 'it was not a Catholic principle to recommend the Scriptures without such [exceptionable] explanations;'—that 'the English Catholic Board did not now intend to disperse *gratuitously* even their own stereotype edition *with notes*; for they could not go about and desire people to receive Testaments, "*because the Catholics did not in anywise consider the Scriptures necessary*;"—for they learnt and taught *their religion* by means of catechisms and elementary tracts.'

This declaration fully justifies an opinion which we have given (see our last No. p. 179. note) on the improbability of effecting an union between the Catholic and our established Protestant church. It also shews that the advertisement of the Catholic Board, on the subject

of a distribution of Bibles, was rather a *ruse de guerre* to amuse the Protestant Bible-Society, than an indication of a wish to adopt its liberal plan. We are not surprised that Mr. Blair, (the surgeon,) who had written letters to several eminent Catholics to know the intention of that body respecting the circulation of *their own approved* translation of the Scriptures, was hurt by the repulsive treatment which he received, and at finding that his 'wishes were frustrated by difficulties which he could neither remove or comprehend.' In a letter to the Rev. Mr. Gandolphy, he expresses his regret at the melancholy discovery which he had made; and we are induced to copy the conclusion of his letter, for the sake of laying before our readers Mr. Gandolphy's very curious reply:

'It is a painful and humiliating reflection to me, that Roman-Catholic principles, even in this enlightened age and country, do not allow the clergy to circulate God's unerring word, with freedom and sincere confidence; as if that which Divine wisdom has mercifully condescended to dictate, were not sufficiently intelligible, nor free from mischievous obscurity, and not efficacious to save souls, without our conceited interpretations! I well know the arguments by which you defend yourselves, in restraining the use of the Bible, unfettered by notes; but they appear to me lighter than vanity, and totally fail in producing conviction!'

Mr. Gandolphy's reply:

'I do not see that I can begin my letter more properly than as you have concluded yours: "It is a painful and humiliating reflection, that the principles of a surgeon, even in this enlightened age and country, do not allow surgeons to put the knife into every body's hands, with freedom and sincere confidence; as if that which Divine wisdom has mercifully condescended to provide for the benefit of man, were not sufficiently manageable, and safe from mischievous accidents, and not efficacious to cure, without the conceited directions of experience."—"I well know," exclaims the impudent mountebank, "the arguments by which you surgeons and physicians defend yourselves in restraining the use of the knife, from those who have not had a surgical education. But they appear to us lighter than vanity, and totally fail in producing conviction."'

This was meant as an *argumentum ad hominem* for the surgeon: but Mr. Blair saw its weakness, and thus rejoined:

'We Protestants certainly cannot agree to the moral fitness and propriety of your similitude, when you compare the Bible to the cutting instruments employed in surgery. The latter, it is true, are obviously and inevitably dangerous in rude or unpractised hands; but, I have not learnt, that the Bible is necessarily a dangerous book in any well meaning and honest person's hands.'

To the modern Douay and Rhemish translations of the Holy Scriptures, which were those that were intended for distribution among Catholics, a body of notes was added; which contained, as Mr. Butler admits, 'many expressions of *polemic asperity*.' The same learned gentleman tells us that the notes accompanying the modernized copy of the Rhemish version have been *queued* of this asperity. To shew, however, that many of these weeds remain, a selection of notes, copied from the above-mentioned translations, is given in an

Appendix. We shall copy only one of these notes, for the sake of correcting the error which it contains, and which we wonder that the editor of this pamphlet had not noticed :

“ Hebrews, xi. 21. “ *Worshipped the top of his rod.*” The Apostle here follows the ancient Greek Bible of the seventy interpreters, (which translates in this manner, Gen. xlvii. 31.) and acknowledges this fact of Jacob, in paying a relative honour and veneration to the top of the rod or sceptre of Joseph, as to a figure of Christ’s sceptre and kingdom, as an instance and argument of his faith. But Protestants, who are no friends to this relative honour, have corrupted the text, by translating it, “ *he worshipped leaning upon the top of his staff;*” as if this circumstance of leaning upon his staff were any argument of Jacob’s faith, or worthy the being thus particularly taken notice of by the Holy Ghost.”

It is not true that the Greek Bible of the Seventy is followed in the Catholic version. The words of the LXX. are, “ And Israel worshipped *on* the top of his staff,” *ἐπὶ τὸ ἄκρον τοῦ ῥαβδοῦ αὐτοῦ*, that is, (as we understand it,) resting or supporting himself on the top of his staff.

In the notes to the earlier editions of the Rheims Testaments, the Protestants are very grossly attacked. As a specimen, we need only extract the conclusion of the note to 1 Cor. x. 21. : “ The heretics’ communion is the very table and cup of devils.”

Justice requires us to observe, in favour of the Catholics, that, though all reflections on Protestants, as heretics, are not removed from the modern notes, the rancorous violence (or, to use Mr. Butler’s words, the *polemic asperity*;) is abated; and it would have given us the most sincere pleasure, had the Catholics enabled us, on the present occasion, to have reported their growing liberality and kindness towards those who are not members of their communion.

The public must perceive, from the whole tenor of this correspondence, that the doctrines of the Romish Church are as unalterable as the laws of the Medes and Persians: but this pertinacity of system is no objection to the granting of the petition for Catholic emancipation, provided that the system itself be not hostile to the constitution. Catholics and Protestants may never agree on religious subjects, and yet the state may safely protect both in the enjoyment of their rights as members of the British empire. Enemies to our Protestant Established Church, all Catholic priests must necessarily be: but their hostility is merely the enmity of bigotry and prejudice; and if they can assail her only by spiritual anathemas, let her remember that church-thunder is now mere *brutum fulmen*.

EDUCATION.

Art. 22. *Reminiscentia Numeralis*; or, The Memory’s Assistant, in Numbers and Dates; in Three Parts. To which is prefixed a regular System of the Art, founded on Dr. Grey’s *Memoria Technica*, &c. By S. Needham, Master of Homer House Seminary. Part I. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Law. 1813.

Whatever may have been the success of Mr. Needham in initiating his pupils in the rudiments of the “*Memoria Technica*,” as he has altered

altered it, we do not think that the readers of his work will be much benefited by his instructions, or that the system itself has received any improvement under his hands. A question may arise as to the probable advantage of introducing into seminaries any technical assistant to the memory; and many persons will dispute the propriety of loading the brains of youth with memorial words, before the mind is capable of comprehending the subjects to which they are applied. Such an art should be used with great caution. It is not meant to supply the pupil with the information in which it is necessary that he should be skilled, but to fix and methodize the knowledge which he has already acquired: it is not intended to supersede the necessity of study, but merely as an auxiliary in making that study effectual, and as a prompter to recall it at the will of the student. In the present work, by not putting the Memorial lines into the metre of Latin verse, the author has deprived himself of one of the principal recommendations, and of the greatest facility, of Dr. Grey's system, without introducing any improvement to compensate for the loss.

The study is here communicated by means of question and answer; but the author has not been sufficiently careful to give the gradual information which is necessary for explaining the tables. For instance; we are not informed in the answer to any preceding question by what letter or letters two, three, or more cyphers occurring together are to be represented, instead of repeating the letter which, we are before told, denotes the single cypher; and much confusion must accordingly arise when an unlearned pupil finds that the cyphers are designated in the tables by letters that have not been named to him in his previous lessons.

This *first part* is again divided into two parts; in the *first*, the system is explained, and applied to chronological occurrences, &c., according to Mr. Needham's rules; and the *second* consists of 'Annotations, illustrative and explanatory of the several Questions' contained in the first volume. These are 'designed as reading exercises, particularly for the days on which the art is studied;' and whatsoever may become of the system, they will form very instructive and entertaining lessons, since they contain much useful information selected from the English histories and Cyclopædias. These two volumes form the *first part* of the work, which is designed to extend to three parts; the second and third treating of Biography, Geography, and Astronomy, in the same manner as the system is here exemplified in the study of chronology. We would recommend a greater degree of precision and neatness; and, as to correctness of style, we would ask whether such an expression as 'it is most natural for to inquire' becomes the instructor of youth? The language of the writer, when he speaks in his own person, is generally puerile and inelegant.

Art. 23. *Advice to Christian Parents*, relative to the training and governing of their Children, in a Letter to a Friend. By R. Elliot, A. B., formerly of Bennet College, Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. Conder.

Good advice is not the worse for being brief; and, in the course of a few pages, Mr. Elliot offers hints on education which may be

of use both to parents and their offspring. That he has a proper conception of the subject will be evident from the following remark ; ' A good education is of much greater importance, and more to be desired, than a large fortune ; and the best education is that which fits a person for the greatest usefulness in the world ;'

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 24. *Sacred Meditations, and devotional Hymns*, with some Essays in Prose, composed on various Occasions of Life, and published for the Use of the intelligent Mind in its serious Moments. By a Layman. Crown 8vo. pp. 301. 7s. 6d. Boards. Murray.

Persons may possess good sense without enjoying the graces of poetry : piety and taste are not always united ; and hence it often happens that hymns and sacred meditations in verse, however replete with devotional and improving sentiments, are destitute of those elegancies of diction which captivate the lovers of the Muse. We are sorry to be forced to declare that this observation applies to the present volume ; for though we have been induced to respect the author for the pains which he has taken to cultivate his mind, to cherish the principles of religion, to counteract the seductions of the world, and to promote in himself and others a serious regard to a future state of being ; though we find in his prose-essays many practical observations which manifest a heart filled with love to God and man ; yet, when we read his poetical effusions, he seems to lose the respect to which he had become intitled, and the Christian philosopher sinks into the tame rhymers. Some good thoughts occur, in prose, on *the Use of the Sabbath* ; and we shall transcribe a part of the essay :

' To impress our minds with a proper sense of religion, we must take the same course which we should pursue to imbibe a knowledge of botany, chemistry, painting, or any other art or science. We must study it, practise it, and occasionally let our reflections be occupied by it. Religion will no more come gratuitously into the mind than electricity, or Hebrew, or Greek. Nature supplies the capability to receive it ; the soil in which it may be planted ; the feeling which will improve it, and often the desire of possessing it. But nature must be educated to it ; and due means must be used for its cultivation, or the natural sensibility for it will be in time absorbed and lost amid the more impetuous impressions which arise from the passions and employments of life.'—

' Sunday is a day expressly consecrated to the Deity and his adoration. All the business of life is then suspended by law and custom. We are invited to attend public prayer ; and we have the leisure of a whole day to apply as our judgment thinks most fit. Now every individual, who really desires to cultivate his devotional feeling, will do well to make use of his Sunday for that purpose. Such an appropriation of this day will be no intrusion on the forms and occupations of life. It is but using the day for its natural and appointed purpose. It is employing it as reason dictates, if religion be of Divine descent, and as some of the best and wisest men have practised and recommended.'

The

The poem on the same subject thus concludes :

- ' Each Sabbath is a little pause
Between the world and me.
My selfish troubles it suspends ;
It makes my soul more free.
- ' That wise seclusion it provides,
Which human passion needs ;
That rest from care, from pleasure too,
Which our best purpose feeds.
- ' Each Sabbath, then, I turn aside,
Oh World ! from thy pursuits :
'Tis sacred to th' Eternal Cause ;
And sacred be its fruits !'

A poem intitled *Good Friday* has these stanzas :

- ' For faithful Memory points to man
That dismal hour of gloom,
When mad Judæa's leaders ran
To crucify — Ah ! whom ?
- ' The Lord of Life ! who meekly came
To purify the heart ;
To kindle virtue's brightest flame,
And future heaven impart.'

In volumes of devotional poetry, when the pieces are numerous, nothing is more common than the same thought worked over and over again till it becomes quite fatiguing. We could have wished that the present '*Layman*' had not fallen into this fault. He strums too often on the same string : but the carelessness and tameness of his verse constitute a fault less tolerable than the repetition of the same thoughts. He thus begins a poem which is called '*A Parent's Wish*.'

- ' Thy goodness, Lord ! my little nest
Has with these four sweet cherubs blest.
Teach me to form their tender hearts
Nobly to act Life's changing parts ;
Their moveable desires to guide,
And rouse their minds to Virtue's pride,
Until the blissful habit grow,
Thy love to seek, thy precepts know.'

The '*Layman*' is no doubt a good parent, but surely not a good poet.

Art. 25. *A Selection from Bishop Horne's Commentary on the Psalms.*
By Lindley Murray, Author of an English Grammar, &c. 12mo.
5s. Boards. Longman and Co.

This selection has been made for the very commendable purpose of leading young persons to admire and study those beautiful and devout compositions, the Psalms of David. Mr. Murray has chosen portions

tions of a pious and practical nature, which are calculated to elevate the mind to God, and to impress it with thankfulness and holy obedience. His compilation may therefore be recommended as an useful manual.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 26. *The Literary Diary; or improved common-place Book*: to which are prefixed, An explanatory Treatise; An Abridgement of the Aurifodina of Drexelius, by Bishop Horne; and an Index, formed with some Variations, on the celebrated Plan of Mr. Locke. 4to. 16s. Taylor and Hessey. 1811.

Our long experience in literary labour has impressed us so strongly with the importance of attentive notation, as to lead us to record in our pages even the humbler attempts which are made to aid the industry of the student. Of the different diaries or common-place books recommended to scholars, none possess more the merit of simplicity than that of Mr. Locke. His plan was to consider, in the first place, to what word or title the memorandum to be entered most naturally referred: this word or title he wrote in a large character at the beginning of the paragraph in his common-place book; and he inserted a reference to it in his index, under the same word or title. "Suppose," he says, "you wish to note down a passage which refers to the head *Beauty*: if there is as yet no place allotted in your book for words beginning with *Be*, turn to the first blank page in your book, and write a paragraph under the head *Beauty*. Allot two pages or more for each initial syllable, such as *Ba*, *Be*, and, on commencing a new page, never fail to enter it in the index." To this method, Mr. Locke adhered in his collections for a long series of years, without experiencing any inconvenience from what would appear to many persons a course too simple to answer for the almost endless variety of subjects which occur to a man of reading. The present *Diary* is intended as an improvement on that of Mr. Locke, and begins with the following table of general subjects:

Religion, <i>Natural</i> .	Biography.
——, <i>Revealed</i> .	Geography and Chronology.
Language.	Philosophy, <i>Moral</i> .
Criticism.	——, <i>Political</i> .
Poetry.	——, <i>Experimental</i> .
Logic and Metaphysics.	Mathematics.
History, <i>Ancient</i> .	Fine Arts.
——, <i>Modern</i> .	
——, <i>English</i> .	
——, <i>Natural</i> .	

The memoranda, or particulars for notation, will in course vary according to the studies of the individual; and no difficulty will occur in his introducing farther divisions, or subdivisions, of any subject which may particularly interest him. The advantage of classing together the notes or remarks on any particular department of study is sufficiently obvious. In Mr. Locke's plan, the index-notices are too concise, and there is a want of connection between the different paragraphs in the same page: objections which induce us to look to the admirable perspicuity of his mind as the chief

chief source of that satisfaction which he is contented to ascribe to the method which he adopted.

Among the minor directions for keeping a common-place book, the editor of this Diary recommends it to the student to insert a number (1, 2, 3, &c.) in the margin of every *original* paragraph. These numbers are useful both for connection and reference. 'If, for instance, a passage in p. 4., be commented upon in page 39., paragraph 48., the figures $\frac{1}{2}^9$ placed in the margin of page 4., opposite to that passage, will be a sufficient indication where such comment may be found.'—The time bestowed on making, in a note-book, an analysis of a didactic work, will in general be found to be well employed; since in this, as in other things, the division of labour proves equally conducive to expedition and to facility of execution. The drudgery of penmanship may be lessened by taking brief notes on a first perusal, and by dictating them in an extended shape for the common-place book to an amanuensis. The late Lord Kaimes was accustomed to say that he never understood a subject thoroughly until he had written on it.

The present Diary is merely a paper-book, neatly ruled and bound, with an index prefixed on a plan similar to that of Mr. Locke. It contains likewise an abridgment, by the late Dr. Horne, of a tract known by the high-sounding name of the "*Aurifodina of Drexelius*," an essay on the utility of taking notes. Though we cannot help thinking that the materials in this little essay might have been better arranged, it contains several useful hints and admonitions.

Art. 27. *The Perpetual Balance* ; or Book-keeping by Double Entry, upon an improved Principle ; exhibiting the general Balance, progressively and constantly, in the Journal, without the Aid of the Ledger. By John Lambert. 8vo. pp. 104. Richardson.

In mercantile counting-houses, books are kept, in the first instance, by daily entries, and afterward by collective monthly statements. A particular transaction, in money or bills, is entered on the day of its occurrence in the book to which it belongs; and, at the end of the month, all transactions of the same description are embodied in one enumeration in the journal. The ledger is or ought to be nothing more than an index to the journal, containing merely a brief reference to the monthly entries detailed in the latter: but, as the ledger, however concise in its explanations, must unavoidably comprise a great number of accounts, it seldom happens that a general balance or list of the sums at Dr. and Cr. is made out more than once in a-year. It has, in consequence, frequently occurred that frauds have been committed by clerks, and have remained undetected until the close of the year. Mr. Lambert specifies several unfortunate examples of this description, and then proceeds to recommend a method which is calculated in his opinion to afford a steady check on all such irregularities. Nothing, he adds, could be more conducive to the promotion of habits of fidelity; since he has not (p. 7.) the least doubt that 'nine out of ten, who have made free with the money of their employers, intended to replace the sums abstracted, before they supposed it possible for them to be discovered.'

Commendable

Commendable, however, as is Mr. Lambert's object, neither his proposed alterations nor his manner of explaining them will be found to discover a thorough acquaintance with his subject. A practised book-keeper will be mortified, on opening his tract, to find (p. 42.) an adherence to the old plan of a day-book; a plan now generally relinquished for the far superior method of monthly entries from the subsidiary books. Next comes (p. 58.) his journal, which, though less objectionable in its form, has no particular feature of novelty or utility. The opposite sides of the journal-page are made to balance; but it is somewhat unusual to find the credit-entries on the left, and the debits on the right. The ledger is exhibited (p. 72.) in the common form, and is followed (p. 83.) by what the author calls the 'Perpetual Balance;' in other words, a method of keeping the journal in such a way as to enable the principal clerk, or a partner in the house, to make out a general enumeration of balances with less trouble than is experienced on the present plan. The basis of Mr. Lambert's system consists in classing, in the ledger, all personal accounts under two general heads, 'accounts payable, and accounts receivable;' referring the enumeration of each description of accounts to a subsidiary ledger.—Without discouraging an attempt of this nature, we must remark that the idea is by no means new; and that his journal-page (p. 84. *et seq.*) is unnecessarily complicated. We view with more indulgence his attempts (p. 30. and 99.) to explain to retail-dealers the practicability of applying the method of double entry in their transactions. Much remains to be done in this respect; for we believe that retailers have seldom a direct check over their servants, and must often draw their conclusions respecting the safety of their goods from no more definite premises than the general propriety of a young man's behaviour.—The chief fault of Mr. Lambert's essay consists in its diffuseness and want of perspicuity. In so dry and uninviting a subject as book-keeping, a writer should spare no pains to make every thing intelligible; and the true way to do this is, to attend to the often repeated but still neglected maxim of rendering ourselves familiar with a subject, by continued reflection, before we profess to instruct others.

Art. 28. *An Attempt to explain, define, and appreciate the Liberty of the Press, with a View to its Importance, as connected with the Rights and Welfare of the People.* Dedicated, by Permission, to the Right Honourable Lord Erskine. 8vo. pp. 77. Wilkie and Robinson. 1812.

At the commencement of this pamphlet, the author attempts a definition of libel, and insists that, notwithstanding all the difficulties alleged in this respect, the nature of libel is as susceptible of explicit statement as that of any other offence. He explains it to consist in 'publishing improper things of such a nature as to call for the decision of a jury.' The liberty of the press is, according to him, of somewhat older date than is commonly imagined; although nothing decisive was legislated on this subject till after the Revolution. From that date, the press continued on a footing of considerable but undefined freedom, till the year 1792, when the right of juries to "give a general verdict of guilty or not guilty, on the whole matter at issue,"

was definitively recognized. This, as many of our readers are aware, was a great point of discussion after the trial of Woodfall for the publication of Junius's Letter to the King; Lord Mansfield maintaining that the province of the jury was confined to deciding on the "fact of the publication."—The practical result of the statute of 1792 is thus to render a writer amenable, not to the opinion of a judge, but to the decision of a jury; who are considered as less liable to be actuated by a political bias than a lawyer, however respectable, who has probably owed his situation, more or less, to party-favour.

The present writer dwells with great satisfaction on the importance of the step gained by the act of 1792. An appeal to 'twelve honest men affords,' he says, 'a hope where we may safely cast anchor;' and which, he trusts, will never prove visionary: but he is by no means satisfied with the arbitrary power of the Attorney-general in *ex-officio* informations; 'by virtue of which that officer may proceed to measures of severity without the preliminary inquest of a grand jury, and without being responsible for the consequences.' 'No officer of government ought (p. 52.) to have the power of putting an individual to the expence and ignominy of a public trial, merely because *he thinks* him in the wrong.' The contest is altogether unequal, the writer or publisher being left, even in the case of successful resistance, in a situation of great hardship*.—The third and last part of this tract consists of some general observations on the importance of the freedom of the press to every enlightened society. Here the points of discussion being less defined, the author gives a loose to that tone of exaggeration which forms a considerable drawback on the merit of his remarks. 'The situation of an animal fattened and led to the slaughter is (he says, p. 63.) *far preferable* to that of a rational creature, who is endowed with the faculty of thought and reflection, but can only reflect for the purpose of feeling his own debasement and slavish situation.' This tone of amplification, and an habitual inaccuracy of style, constitute deductions from the merit of a tract which in its spirit and tendency has a title to considerable approbation.—A character somewhat similar belongs to another pamphlet published under the quaint title of "*Killing no Murder*;" which proceeds, we understand, from the same pen. It lies at present on our table, and shall be noticed in connection with some other publications on the topic of parliamentary reform.

Art. 29. *An Account of what appeared on opening the Coffin of King Charles the First, in the Vault of Henry the Eighth in St. George's Chapel at Windsor, on the 1st of April 1813.* By Sir Henry Hallford, Bart., F.R.S. and F.A.S., Physician to the King, &c. 4to. 2s. 6d. White and Cochrane.

A discrepancy has been observed in the two accounts of the interment and burial-place of King Charles I., as given by Lord Clarendon in his narrative of the Rebellion, and by Mr. Herbert, a groom of the bedchamber to Charles, in Wood's "*Athena Oxonienses*;" and an opportunity of clearing up a doubtful point in our history

* See remarks on this subject, in our last Vol. p. 179. Number for February.

presented itself, when an aperture was accidentally made in one of the walls of the vault of Henry VIII. by the workmen who were lately employed in making a passage under the choir of St. George's chapel into the Tomb-house, where his present Majesty has completed a magnificent mausoleum. The Prince Regent, therefore, gave orders that the vault of Henry VIII. should be examined, and was himself present at the investigation; accompanied by the Duke of Cumberland, Count Munster, Dr. Legge, Dean of Windsor, B.C. Stevenson, Esq., and Sir Henry Halford. The result was the discovery of the leaden coffin of the unfortunate Charles, bearing this short inscription, "King Charles, 1648," on a scroll in large legible characters. The coffin having been found exactly in the place in which Mr. Herbert reports that it was interred, a square opening was made in the upper part of the lid, of such dimensions as to admit a clear insight into its contents; and Sir Henry Halford proceeds to describe the appearance of them:

"These were an internal wooden coffin, very much decayed, and the body, carefully wrapped up in cere-cloth, into the folds of which a quantity of unctuous or greasy matter, mixed with resin, as it seemed, had been melted, so as to exclude, as effectually as possible, the external air. The coffin was completely full; and, from the tenacity of the cere-cloth, great difficulty was experienced in detaching it successfully from the parts which it enveloped. Wherever the unctuous matter had insinuated itself, the separation of the cere-cloth was easy; and when it came off, a correct impression of the features to which it had been applied was observed in the unctuous substance. At length, the whole face was disengaged from its covering. The complexion of the skin of it was dark and discoloured. The forehead and temples had lost little or nothing of their muscular substance; the cartilage of the nose was gone; but the left eye, in the first moment of exposure, was open and full, though it vanished almost immediately: and the pointed beard, so characteristic of the period of the reign of King Charles, was perfect. The shape of the face was a long oval; many of the teeth remained; and the left ear, in consequence of the interposition of the unctuous matter between it and the cere-cloth, was found entire.

"It was difficult, at this moment, to withhold a declaration, that, notwithstanding its disfigurement, the countenance did bear a strong resemblance to the coins, the busts, and especially to the pictures of Charles I. by Vandyke, by which it had been made familiar to us.—

"When the head had been entirely disengaged from the attachments which confined it, it was found to be loose, and, without any difficulty, was taken up and held to view. It was quite wet, and gave a greenish red tinge to paper and to linen, which touched it. The back part of the scalp was entirely perfect, and had a remarkably fresh appearance; the pores of the skin being more distinct, as they usually are when soaked in moisture; and the tendons and ligaments of the neck were of considerable substance and firmness. The hair was thick at the back part of the head, and, in appearance, nearly black. A portion of it, which has since been cleaned and dried, is of a beautiful dark brown colour. That of the beard was a redder brown.

brown. On the back part of the head, it was more than an inch in length, and had probably been cut so short for the convenience of the executioner, or perhaps by the piety of friends soon after death, in order to furnish memorials of the unhappy King.

‘On holding up the head, to examine the place of separation from the body, the muscles of the neck had evidently retracted themselves considerably; and the fourth cervical vertebra was found to be cut through its substance, transversely, leaving the surfaces of the divided portions perfectly smooth and even, an appearance which could have been produced only by a heavy blow, inflicted with a very sharp instrument, and which furnished the last proof wanting to identify King Charles the First.

‘After this examination of the head, which served every purpose in view, and without examining the body below the neck, it was immediately restored to its situation, the coffin was soldered up again, and the vault closed.’

Sir Henry endeavours to explain the motive which induced Lord Clarendon to express himself with some uncertainty concerning the exact spot in which the corpse of Charles I. was deposited: but it appears, on the face of the narrative, that the noble historian himself must have been misinformed.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 30. Preached at the Anniversary Meeting of the Stewards of the Sons of the Clergy, in the Cathedral Church of St. Paul, May 14. 1812. By the Rev. Charles Burney, D. D., Rector of Deptford, &c. 4to. Rivingtons. 1813.

With eloquence dignified, appropriate, and impressive, the nature and effects of Christian charity are defined and illustrated in this discourse. Dr. Burney reminds his audience of a fact which reflects the highest honour on the Gospel; namely, that, before the Christian era, charity was not recommended as a virtue of transcendent excellence; and that, consequently, antient history does not furnish us with an account of any edifices which were appropriated to charitable purposes before the advent of the Messiah. ‘It was suggested,’ he adds in a note, ‘by a great scholar, as I have been informed, that the building mentioned by Thucydides, book iii., under the name of *Kαταγύγιον*, was a public asylum for the indigent. With all deference, this structure was merely an inn, or caravanserai, which the Lacedemonians erected on the site of the ruined city, Platea. *Καταλύμα*, the corresponding Hellenistic word, is the term used by St. Luke to designate the inn at Bethlehem.’ This *Καταγύγιον*, which was erected, as Thucydides tells us, near Juno’s temple, after the whole city of Plataea had been rooted up from its very foundation, is called by Smith, in his translation of the Greek historian, “a spaciuous inn;” and though Dr. B. offers his opinion on this point with deference, notwithstanding his very extensive learning, no doubt can be entertained of the perfect correctness of his representation.—The peculiar circumstances, in which the children of the poorer clergy are placed, are forcibly urged as a motive for the support of the charity in behalf of which the preacher exerts his superior talents; and his arguments, we take it for granted, produced a desirable effect.

Art.

Art. 21. *A Plea for the Catholic Claims*: preached at the Chapel in Essex-street, March 10. 1812. being the Day appointed for a General Fast. By Thomas Belsham. 8vo. 1s. Johnson and Co.

This preacher is not one of those cloudy divines who, instead of elucidating, throw a mist over every subject which they undertake to discuss; but he belongs to the privileged few whose mental atmosphere is clear, and who present luminous views of every topic which falls under their consideration. "A sketch, from such a hand as that of Mr. Belsham, is a finished picture." In the compass of a short single discourse, he has given the whole merits of the question on the Catholic claims; and, though a Protestant of the most proscribed sect, he has pleaded the cause of the Catholics with such a force of sound argument, as must convince all those who are not the slaves of system and prejudice. Some writers of eminent talents, who ought to have been better acquainted with the subject, have ventured to assert that religious liberty in this country is complete, and that the Catholics and other Dissenters are not persecuted: but Mr. B. fully exposes the inaccuracy of this assertion. He regards persecution as of two kinds, positive and negative; the former consisting in the infliction of pains and penalties, and the latter in the withholding of rights; and the operation of this negative persecution he paints in strong colours.

CORRESPONDENCE.

To *A. B.*—We are always ready to listen to explanation from others, or to correct any actual error of our own pens: but we cannot enter into protracted controversy; and still less can we condescend to notice the ebullitions of those who, instead of openly appealing to us, vilify us behind our backs in other publications.

The private letter from Dublin was not received till after the insertion of our opinion of the book to which it refers. The politeness of that letter, and the circumstances stated in it, make us regret that this opinion could not be more favourable.

T. W. is informed that the object of his inquiry is *sub judice*.

The political reflections of *Q. in a Corner* are appropriate to a magazine, not to our pages. We suspect that Mr. *Q.* is a *sly-boots*; somewhat like the arch bell-man, whose last Christmas verses were sublimely closed with these lines on

"The KING.

"Who as a Briton but bewails the day,
That robb'd the nation of her George's sway?
Who but can see Misfortune's awful low'r
Has mark'd the country, and assum'd a pow'r,
Still threat'ning?—Who can see the mischiefs done?
Who can expect them mended by his son?"

"O villain! thou wilt be condemned into everlasting redemption for this!"



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For AUGUST, 1813.

ART. I. *Voyages and Travels, in the Years 1809, 1810, and 1811; containing Statistical, Commercial, and Miscellaneous Observations on Gibraltar, Sardinia, Sicily, Malta, Serigo, (Cerigo,) and Turkey.* By John Galt. 4to. pp. 435. 2l. 2s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1812.

AFTER all the tours in Greece and the Grecian islands that have been published and reviewed, we are induced to notice at some length Mr. Galt's report of those districts, for two reasons; first, on account of the recency of his journey, and next from the circumstance of his having several times ventured on ground seldom visited by the traveller. Of that description is the southern part of the Peloponnesus, particularly Laconia; which, till of late years, was too much infested with robbers to be traversed without a powerful escort. It frequently happened that travellers found it necessary to stop short at Tripolizza, near the site of the antient Megalopolis; or, if they ventured farther to the southward, they judged it advisable to take a western direction towards Messenia. — Another part of Mr. Galt's peregrinations, little familiar to the readers of travels, is the road from Adrianople to Widdin on the Danube, which includes the extensive and lofty range known by the name of Mount Hæmus. — A third quarter, not unvisited indeed, but hitherto very imperfectly described, is the island of Sardinia, the interior of which is much less benefited by the example of European civilization than persons commonly imagine. A report of these different countries appeared to promise a considerable addition to our present stock of information: but, in proceeding with the perusal of the book, we frequently found reason to regret that Mr. Galt's attention and accuracy were not equal to his activity and enterprize.

Having made some observations on Gibraltar, and on the importance of a tour to the far-famed shores of the Mediterranean, Mr. G. conducts his reader to Sardinia. He seldom takes the trouble of mentioning dates, but his complaints of the heat render it evident that this part of his voyage was performed in summer.

The town of Cagliari has few pretensions to the name of a capital: its streets are miserably paved, and scarcely more than twenty feet wide; and while the appearance of the Sardinian court indicates a fall from a better condition, the manners of the lower orders present no doubtful tokens of an approximation to barbaric rudeness. Will it be believed that in Europe, and in the nineteenth century, a people could be found who are in the habit of wearing an upper garment of shaggy goat-skins; or that tanned leather-coats should be accounted a dress of more than common convenience? In some parts of the interior, the mountains are infested with banditti, and the villages are not unfrequently at war with each other: while in the less uncivilized districts, the administration of justice is strangely conducted, the Judges deriving their chief income from the fees paid on each award; which is, in other words, receiving a premium for multiplying revisions. With an equal ignorance of good government, restrictions are imposed on the exportation of wine and grain. The peasantry are in a state of vassalage; the landholders (or, as they are termed, the nobility) are numerous and ignorant; and the unproductive members of the church possess no title to more charitable appellations. The population of the island is computed at half a million, the revenue at only 80,000*l.* sterling; and the Sardinians being jealous of the Piedmontese, the king has not judged it advisable to encourage emigration from his late continental dominions. The best qualities of these rude islanders are their national courage; and the possession, in a high degree, of the primitive virtue of hospitality.

Mr. Galt is not an enthusiastic venerator of the grandeur of antiquity. He does not scruple, when speaking of Athens in its antient state, to quote (p. 89.) the observation of De Pauw that the "streets were narrow, obstructed with stairs, and the air darkened and confined by overhanging balconies." Nor does he hesitate (p. 368.) to pronounce the royal city of Priam to have been "a wooden town, surrounded by a wall, ten or twelve feet high, and probably not more than two feet thick."—On reaching Sicily, he was landed from the packet at Girgenti, the antient Agrigentum. That town, standing on the summit of a lofty mountain, has from a distance a fine appearance: but, on entering it, the 'vilest lanes in Edinburgh' are found to be paths of pleasantness compared to its streets.' On visiting the ruins, Mr. G. saw the celebrated temple of Concord, and the temple of Juno, both in good condition: but a larger structure, the temple of Jupiter Olympus, is now a shapeless mass of ruin. After all that the antients have said of the wondrous population and extent of Agrigentum, Mr. Galt is not disposed

to consider it as having been any thing more than 'a respectable Sicilian town.'

In travelling to Palermo, Mr. G. had the satisfaction to find the vineyards in a good state of cultivation, and was delighted with the distant prospect of the Sicilian capital; and, on entering it, he was struck with the amazing crowd of persons in the streets, which much exceeds the throng of London. A population amounting, it is said, to 300,000, (but more probably to 200,000,) is compressed within the narrow circumference of four miles. The tradesmen, in self-defence, carry on their several employments in the open air; and the Via Toledo, one of the great streets, contains, in consequence, an extraordinary number of working taylors and shoemakers. Notwithstanding the outward shew of fine churches and palaces in Palermo, poverty appeared to Mr. Galt to be the common lot of all orders. He tells (p. 37.) a strange story of his being accosted by a Sicilian Baron, who entreated of him a loan of money on a pledge of his watch; and who had no scruple in receiving or rather seizing the contents of his purse: but, which is more to the purpose than any individual adventure, he repeats the former statements that the ground-stories of the residences of the grantees are let as shops and coffee-houses. The number of mendicants is great, and has been increased since the late reduction of the charitable donations made to the poor at the gates of the convents.

We have taken occasion, in a former article, (M.R. Vol. lix. p. 290.) to expose the miserable effects of the Sicilian government on the condition of the people: but these evils, we are happy to think, are now undergoing considerable abatement by the spirited interference of our ministry; although many years must necessarily elapse before the good effects of the change are fully experienced. The great desideratum, in Mr. Galt's opinion, is a reduction of the number of the nobility; and many of the diminutive Barons and Counts of Sicily, who are deterred by family pride from embarking in trade, would, if relieved from the ridiculous prejudice attached to title, bestow their time and labour on useful pursuits. Notwithstanding the infinite disadvantages of an oppressive government, the population of Sicily, even at the time of Mr. G.'s visit, was evidently on the increase. The management of the post-office, however, is so wretched, that the British in the island find it necessary to have an establishment of this kind for themselves; and of the backward state of the literature of Palermo, we may form some idea from the notable circumstance of there being only two regular booksellers in a city which is twice as large as Edinburgh. Till of late years, the Sicilian has been accounted a mere dialect of the Italian, and printed compositions have almost always appeared

in the latter : but attempts are now making to raise the former from this comparative degradation, and to change it from a provincial to a national tongue. A Sicilian dictionary of large size has been printed, and several poets have set the example of publishing in their native language.

Mr. Galt was unfortunately not able to prosecute his journey to the top of Mount Etna, the season being too far advanced, and the snow having fallen in large quantities. He consoled himself, accordingly, with the idea that the summit would present little worth his labour, since the aspect of the mountain from below fell greatly short of his sanguine anticipations. Had he, however, proceeded to the top, and enjoyed the wonderful extent of prospect which it commands, he would have adopted a very different opinion, and would not have hesitated to confess the error of his first impression. His mistake was just such an one as would be made by a person in our own country, who, familiar with the appearance of a hill of 1500 feet in height, should expect the mountains of Westmoreland and Cumberland to strike the eye at once as being of twice that elevation. The size of a mountain, as is well known, varies in appearance according to the distance, to the nature of the intervening objects, and to the height of the ground occupied by the spectator. He who sees it only from below, or from one of the sides, can form but a very imperfect idea of the grandeur of the scene which is in reserve for the more persevering investigator. It is a curious fact that Mont Blanc, when viewed from the bottom, does not appear much higher than other mountains in the neighbourhood which want 5000 feet of its height. *

Though the author did not ascend Etna, he visited the neighbouring city of Catania, and was highly gratified with its appearance. Containing nearly 70,000 inhabitants, it is almost as populous as Messina, and in architectural elegance it surpasses both Messina and Palermo. Here, as in other Catholic cities, the ecclesiastical buildings take the lead. The Benedictine monastery is the grandest structure in the island, and its organ is said to be the finest in the world. In Syracuse, the ruins of antient buildings consist only of scattered fragments : but the theatre and amphitheatre, having been excavated in a rock, are still tolerably entire. The former appears to have contained benches for 20,000 spectators ; a number sufficient to puzzle the ablest antiquaries with regard to the essential point of accounting for the conveyance of the sound of an actor's voice. — Syracuse, even in its present decayed state, is by situation a very strong fortress. It was garrisoned, at the time of

* Pennington's Excursions, Vol. i. p. 347.

Mr. Galt's visit, by a British regiment of 600 men.—From Sicily, he proceeded to Malta; and thence, after some stay, to the island of Cerigo, the antient Cythera. Here he found himself in the neighbourhood of the Peloponnesus, and lost no time in passing over to Maina, (the southern part of the antient Laconia,) in company with another gentleman, who had agreed to perform with him the journey through Greece.

Maina is a mountainous district; and the inhabitants, living in a state of wild independence, deem it no crime to assail the property of their neighbours either by sea or land. They have, in fact, never been thoroughly subjugated; and they might succeed in driving the Turks to a considerable distance, were not their efforts enfeebled by miserable feuds among themselves. They have the vanity to retain the name and several of the customs of the antient Spartans; among others, that of wearing their hair long and flowing: a peculiarity which, our readers may recollect, was observed in the chosen band of Leonidas on the eve of their memorable conflict. They are not, however, more gallant than their ancestors in their treatment of the fair sex; the labour in the fields appearing to devolve chiefly on the women. The most remarkable feeling discovered by our travellers in the disposition of the Mainots was a wish for the arrival of a Christian power, no matter whether French or English, to relieve them from the detested neighbourhood of the Turks.—Mr. Galt and his companion having, in consequence of introductions to the chiefs, procured a guard, set out on horseback, in a northern direction, towards the site of Sparta. The country was finely diversified by hill and dale; and the oaks, as well as other stately trees, appeared in many places in an abundance that reminded them of the parks and pleasure-grounds of England. On reaching the frontier of the Mainot territory, and approaching Daphnis, one of the first border-villages of the Turks, the travellers entered a spacious valley; bounded on the left by the chain of high mountains stretching northwards to the centre of the Peloponnesus, and on the right by the inferior parallel chain which separates the level part of Laconia from the gulf of Argos. In advancing to Mistra, near the antient Sparta, the valley narrowed; and the country, without losing its beauty of scenery, exhibited marks of tolerable cultivation:

‘ At sunset we had a view of Mistra picturesquely scattered down the side of a steep hill, and crowned with a castle so aërially high, that it seemed rather to have been intended to attack the Gods than to resist the invasions of men.—A few miles before reaching the town, our guards left their musquets and pistols in the cottage of an Albanian, the Christian subjects not being allowed to carry arms in the Turkish dominions. It was dark before we arrived.—

‘Mistra, though generally described as the successor of the ancient Sparta, stands at the distance of two or three miles from extensive piles of ruins, which are properly considered as the remains of that more famous city. The modern town itself is also fast becoming an object of curiosity for the wandering antiquaries. Not above the fourth part of it is inhabited; and churches, moschs, and private houses, are tumbling to pieces. The church, which the Greeks call Perileptos, and which, with their innate propensity to exaggeration, they say was one of the most beautiful in the world, is far gone into decay, and never could have been an object of admiration to any traveller from the westward. Before the late Russian war, in which the Morea was attacked, the population of Mistra was reckoned at twelve thousand souls; and, from the apparent extent of the town, I should think this estimate not greatly beyond the truth. At present, the number of two thousand is sufficient to include every one in the town and suburbs. Among the ruinous buildings of Mistra, several fragments of sculpture, the works of the classic ancients, are seen. We were shewn a magnificent sarcophagus, adorned with figures, and the fruit and foliage of the vine. It serves as the trough to a fountain, and has been much defaced by the pitchers of the water-carriers.

‘We called on the governor, a venerable looking old man, to whom we had letters from Antonbey. He received us with much courtesy, and entertained us, according to the custom of the Turks, with pipes and coffee. He also gave orders to the postmaster to furnish us with horses, and ordered a guard to attend us as far as Tripolizza. The apartment in which he was sitting, in company with several other Turks, was a fair specimen of the condition of the town. The windows were falling from the sashes; and the greatest part of the panes being broken, the vacancies were supplied with paper.

‘In returning from the government-house, we passed the Archbishop of Lacedemon coming from church. He stopped, and invited us to his residence, where he also entertained us with pipes and coffee. We dined with him next day, and received a substantial ecclesiastical dinner. He is a respectable old man, and distinguished for the vigour with which he maintains his authority.—The situation of the palace is singularly fine. It stands high, on the side of the hill on which the town is built, and commands a view of the whole long hollow valley of Sparta, the most fertile and beautiful tract of the Morea.’—

‘After dinner, which was served about mid-day, we went to see the ruins of Sparta. The imagination, without much effort, in surveying the environs, may form an idea of an extensive town; though the remains are covered with grass. The city of the stern and warlike Spartans, has become a walk for harmless sheep. The ruins which we examined have been, originally, buildings constructed with the fragments of more ancient and splendid edifices. We saw, sticking in one of the walls, several broken pieces of elegant fluted columns, and part of a frieze, ornamented with grapes and wheat ears, that, probably, once belonged to a temple of Ceres. Near these
relics

relics there is a defaced inscription, which, had it been suffered to remain, might have told us what they were.'—

'On returning to our lodgings, we were visited by two physicians. One of them a Septinsularian, ignorant and impertinent; the other, a lively German. The Septinsular doctor informed my companion, that he had the misfortune to be married to a devil; and the German, at the same time, told me, that his wife was little inferior to an angel, and invited us to see her. In the evening we gave a ball and supper to the Ephori and their families. Our Spartan supper would have merited the approbation of *Lycurgus* himself. It consisted of a pig and a leg of mutton, with other similar delicacies. Both the devil and the angel made their appearance at our banquet. The former had nothing infernal in her looks; and I think the German was right in saying, that she was made savage by her brute of a husband. His own wife merited some of the praises that he so lavishly bestowed on her. He excused her slow movements in the dance, by whispering to me, that she was a month advanced in pregnancy. His rival, the Septinsularian, soon after, took an opportunity of informing me, that she had been married from the haram of *Vilhi Pashaw*. We found ourselves speedily acquiring a knowledge of all the scandal of the town.'

Proceeding northward from *Mistra*, the travellers crossed the clear and rapid stream of the *Eurotas*, and rode to *Tripolizza*. They found it a miserable place; and after having passed a night there, they turned to the right, in the direction of *Argos*. In their way, they visited the *Lernean lake*; which, except in one small spot of great depth, is nothing but an extensive and unhealthy morass. The labour of *Hercules* in cutting off the heads of the monster, which regularly arose again, is easily explained by the growth of the rushes cut down or burned for the purpose of opening a free passage to the water. — The author next viewed the great spring of *Eracinos*; which rushes, at once a river, from a grotto at the foot of a rocky mountain. In *Argos*, he found little to gratify curiosity. The ruins are inconsiderable, and their forms almost obliterated. *Mycenæ* is still less calculated to reward the trouble of a journey; and the subterranean hollow cone, generally believed to be the tomb of *Agamemnon*, has lost much of its attraction since another cone of the same description has been discovered in the neighbourhood. Mr. Galt remarks, in concurrence with other travellers, particularly *M. Bartoldy*, (*M. R.* Vol. lxii. p. 453.) that, with the exception of *Athens*, very little is to be seen in the ruins of the ancient Greek towns. This he found to be the case at *Corinth* and *Megara*, and the chief satisfaction in this part of the journey was derived from the delightful scenery between *Megara* and *Athens*. Here Mr. G. and his friend passed the ancient *Eleusis*, and saw, almost below them, the strait of *Salamis*, which recalled their early impressions of the skilful tactics of *Themis-*

rocles. On leaving Eleusis, the level country is found gradually to expand, and an extensive prospect opens in front. First is seen the top of Mount Hymettus ; next, the Acropolis of Athens ; and soon afterward the traveller's eye is fixed on the temple of Theseus. The road in approaching Athens still passes amid groves of olives. The houses have a straggling appearance ; and the town-wall, which incloses a number of gardens, is computed to be more than three miles in circumference.

‘ The common estimate of the population of Athens is ten thousand souls ; and it appears not to be far from the truth : and yet the city contains no less than thirty-nine parochial churches, besides the metropolitan, and upwards of eighty chapels.’—

‘ The famous University of Athens has dwindled into two pitiful schools, where classic Greek is professedly taught. The students are few, and their proficiency is small. Degrees are not conferred, and no literary honours are now known in Athens. There are several private schools ; and the Athenians can, generally, read and write.’—

‘ In Athens, there are eleven places of Mahomedan worship. The Turks have also three public schools, where their youth receive a slender species of education.’—

‘ The only trade at the Piræus, is the exportation of the productions of the Athenian territory ; of which about thirty-five thousand barrels of oil are annually shipped by the French merchants settled here, and from forty to fifty tons of madder roots. The oil is good ; but the madder is inferior to that of Smyrna. A small quantity of nitre is also prepared at Athens. Considering the improvement which has taken place in the neighbouring islands, and particularly in Egina, it is probable that the Piræus may again become a frequented port. There is a little cotton raised in Attica ; but the ground is so carelessly tilled, that the grain harvest rarely affords much for exportation.

‘ The temple of Jupiter Olympus, which was the largest fabric in Athens, presents now only a few columns ; but they are of such majestic proportions, that they form a very impressive spectacle. No just notion of the figure or extent of the building can be conceived from them ; but this obscurity, especially as they are seen standing in an open field, unobstructed with rubbish, enhances the interest and the solemnity of their effect. The Turks, and the baser Greeks, are in the practice of breaking down and burning the marbles of the ancients, in order to make mortar. Owing to this, all the rest of the hundred and twenty pillars of which this gorgeous edifice consisted, have entirely vanished away.

‘ The temple of Minerva, with the other buildings in the Acropolis, are the most celebrated of all the Athenian edifices. In point of influence on the imagination, all the elaborate sculptures of the Parthenon, the Erechtheum, the Pandrosæum, and the Propylia, fall infinitely short of the ivied cloisters of a monastery, or the ruder masses of a feudal castle. Artists may here find models ; but the cursory traveller, who expects to be awed by the venerable aspect of ruin, will wonder at the apathy of his own feelings. He must be-

come

some a student, in order to appreciate the excellence of the Grecian sculpture.'—

'The temple of Theseus is the next object of admiration. It is an elegant Doric oblong columnar building, with a pediment of six pillars at each end. It has suffered less from time, or antiquaries, more destructive than time, than any other edifice in Athens. From the ornaments, it appears to have been dedicated to Hercules as well as to Theseus. The workmanship and architecture afford a favourable specimen of the state of the arts in the time of Pericles, by whose orders, I believe, this temple was raised.'—

'Next in rank, perhaps superior in beauty, is the monument of Lysicrates, adjoining to the monastery in which we lodged. It is generally known by the ridiculous name of the Lantern of Demosthenes, given to it by some ignorant Greek Cicerone, who, probably, heard of Diogenes and his lantern, and confounded the orator with the cynic. Diogenes had, certainly, a very correct opinion of the Athenians, of whom it may be said, that, by their ostracism, they punished virtue as other nations do vice. The monument of Lysicrates is a circular building, of the Corinthian order, about six feet in diameter. The frize is ornamented with bas reliefs, representing the story of Bacchus and the Tyrrhenian pirates. It was built about three hundred and thirty years before the Christian æra.—

'Our ideas of the splendour of the antient nations are, for the most part, exceedingly erroneous, chiefly owing, I conceive, to their being derived from descriptions of temples and palaces; words which, of themselves, always charm up a number of gorgeous and unreal fancies. A painter, in giving a view of any occurrence which took place in the streets of ancient Athens, would be regarded as a man of a niggardly imagination, if he attempted to delineate the appearance of the town with historical fidelity. De Pauw, in his philosophical researches, informs us, on the authority of Aristotle, that the streets were narrow, obstructed with stairs, and the air darkened and confined by overhanging balconies. The houses were constructed with timber; and, from the general poverty of the community, we have no reason to imagine that they exhibited any extraordinary elegance of interior arrangement. Were we to judge of the domestic mansions of the English by the cathedrals and the remains of Popish grandeur, we should conclude that the country has greatly declined in magnificence.'

Notwithstanding the customary haste of Mr. Galt and his fellow-traveller, they found inducements to pass a week at Athens. On leaving it, they proceeded to Marathon; where, if they fail to describe the military advantages of the position of Miltiades, they do not omit to notice the favourable nature of the beach for a disembarking army. The shore is flat for many miles; and the water has, all along, sufficient depth to admit the close approach of boats. Continuing their ride, on the next day, they had a good view of the opposite shore of Eubœa, which seemed to be well planted with olives, and tolerably cultivated.

tivated. At the town of Negropont, the streight is so narrow as to be passed by a wooden bridge. The population of the town seems to be about 5,000 : but the place is wretchedly built, and the climate is unwholesome. At Thebes, the next object of examination, the travellers could discover no traces of antiquity. As their journey took place in a dry season, they found that the channel of the Ismenus, like that of most other Grecian rivers, contained only a feeble stream. The territory of Thebes is fertile, and affords a supply of corn for exportation. The two ports for the shipment of Bœotian products are Negropont and Megara : but the modern capital of the chief part of this province is Livadia :

‘ *Livadia* stands on the steep slope of a rocky hill, divided by a rugged chasm, through which, in winter, a violent occasional torrent rages ; and, all the year, from the cave of Trephonius, and adjacent springs, a plentiful stream of delightful water continually flows. Before the town lies a beautiful verdant valley, watered by this stream ; and behind, on a lofty, precipitous, and craggy corner of the mountain, stand the towers and pinnacles of a castle in ruins.

‘ The ancient Livadia stood at a considerable distance from the site of the modern. The existing town contains about five thousand inhabitants, who have grievously felt the oppressive sway of Ali Pashaw, of which the decaying aspects of their houses bear irrefutable testimony.—

‘ *Charonea*. — Being detained, by the want of horses sufficient to enable us to proceed on our journey, we made an excursion to Chzronea, rendered famous by the battle which Philip, the father of Alexander, fought near it. The village consists of about half a dozen scattered cottages, and almost as many churches. The remains of a Grecian fortress, seen, on the top of a hill, which commands the plain, and the form of a theatre, excavated, at the bottom, with several broken marbles, on one of which we saw the name of Philip and a wreath of victory, are the monumental memorials of the city.

‘ Having looked at the little that is to be seen at Chzronea, we went to Ocomenos, (Orchomenos,) now called Scripou. But the many-peopled town of Homer exists no more. There are, however, a few relics of its ancient splendour still visible ; particularly the ruins of a great circular mausoleum, similar to those in the neighbourhood of Mycæne.—

‘ *Parnassus*. — We left Livadia after breakfast ; and, in the course of the afternoon, arrived at Castri, the ancient Delphi. Our ride, for nearly half the way, was through a valley, wild, romantic, and magnificent, till we reached Rakova, and its fertile environs of cotton fields and vineyards. From Rakova to Castri the road, ascending and descending, affords, at every turning, the finest views imaginable of savage scenery. Considering the impressions which the appearance of nature makes here, we could not but assent to the propriety

propriety of the ancients in regarding Parnassus as the peculiar region of the Muses.

‘ The ruins of Delphi consist of mutilated inscriptions, extensive terraces, and a few fragments of pillars. It seems no longer possible, without scaffolds, to discover the site of the great Temple of Apollo. It was, probably, where there is now a small monastery, in the midst of an olive grove. In that neighbourhood the niches in the rocks, for votive offerings, are most numerous. It was, also, generally, the custom, after the establishment of Christianity, to appropriate the old consecrated ground to the service of the new religion.

‘ The Castalian spring still flows; and we enjoyed a draught, but without any effectual inspiration. A square bason, excavated in the rock from which it issues, is still almost entire. Two wild fig-trees overhang the source, and a drapery of ivy falls over a niche, and partly conceals a small chapel constructed in a hollow of the precipice. — In a chasm above the spring, the traces of the stairs remain, by which the priests performed their pantomimes, to overawe the pilgrim as he knelt at the fountain to drink.

‘ The scenery round Castri is solemn and grand. The village is overhung by lofty grey precipices; a recluse valley is seen, verdant and rural, far in the hollow below; and the western prospect, diversified by the gulph of Salona, comprehends a long remote range of the mountains of the Morea.’ —

‘ Keeping Parnassus on our left, and gradually ascending a rising ground below the monastery of Jerusalem, which overlooks, towards the east, a great extent of country, we halted to water our horses at a small pool, which had been formed by the resort of cattle and travellers to the spring. Throughout Turkey, fountains are so common on the sides of the roads, that it was remarkable none should have been erected at this place. But the country is chiefly inhabited by Greeks, and the road is not often frequented by Turks. The Christians prefer building useless chapels, in the hope of future reward; and sneer at the Mahomedans, who, from the same motive, are induced to provide the refreshment of cool water for the dumb animal and the thirsty stranger.

‘ From the pool to the village of Marianna the path is steep and rapid. When we had reached the bottom of the valley, the sun was on the edge of the horizon; and the effect of his slanting light on the alpine features of Parnassus produced an awful and stupendous effect. The mountain, towards Turco Cori, appears like a cairn, composed of hills instead of stones. The detached form of the ten principal peaks probably gave rise to the fable of the Muses and Apollo having made it their seat: and the solemnity produced on the mind, by the impression of the surrounding scenery, tended, no doubt, to sanction the fiction.’

The next point of attraction was the pass of Thermopylæ: but the travellers, whether from impatience or defective knowledge of the country, were not successful in ascertaining the spot that was immortalized by Leonidas. After an ineffectual search for the ruins of Heraclea, they rode northwards by the pass

pass of Thaumacos, and had a distant view of the extensive but thinly peopled plain of Pharsalia. Finding it impossible to reach Larissa with daylight, and the weather being very threatening, they were under the necessity of making an urgent application for a night's lodging to the Turkish magistrate of the village of Bacratsi. This magistrate was a Moor, and acceded to their request. They passed some time in a room with him and two Albanian soldiers, and then betook themselves to rest in an adjoining apartment :

‘ All night the rain poured copiously, and the frequent blast laved it against the windows with such violence, that it often disturbed our repose. Before day-light, I heard a cautious kind of noise stirring at the outside of the chamber door. I listened — my heart beat audibly — my companion was asleep. The noise subsided, and I heard the sound of feet soft retreating. The Turks are early risers; and the people of the house, engaged with their domestic affairs, had, in the neighbourhood of our room, proceeded quietly, that they might not awaken us too early.’

On entering Larissa, Mr. G. and his friend were in a disposition to prefer the smoky comforts of a town to all the beauties of rural scenery, when clogged with the drawbacks of ‘ stinted meals, sloughy roads, and sluggish horses.’ Larissa is pleasantly situated on the river Peneus, but the air is insalubrious; and it has suffered severely from the general system of extortion which has been practised, of late years, by Ali Pacha. In traversing the vale of Tempe, Mr. Galt found for once that the praises of the poets had not been lavished on an unworthy object :

‘ The scenery of this beautiful valley fully gratified our expectations. In some places it is sylvan, calm, and harmonious, and the sound of the waters of the Peneus accords with the graciousness of the surrounding landscape; in others it is savage, terrific, and abrupt, and the river roars with violence, darkened by the frown of stupendous precipices, in whose gloomy recesses the traveller expects to see the gleam of the robber's eye, and passes on, overawed and silent. At a short distance below the village of Ambelaki, the motion of the river is almost imperceptible; not an air stirred a leaf of the trees which bent over it, dropping, in irregular festoons, the wild hop, the honeysuckle, and other woodbines. All was so perfectly serene and delightful, that it seemed just such a place as a poet would describe as the elysium of the innocent deaf and dumb. Near this enchanting spot, the sides of the vale begin to contract, the hills assume a tremendous appearance, and the road lies in the bottom of a dreadful chasm. The mind is excited, and fills with images of earthquakes and convulsions that rend the mountains asunder. The wars of the giants, with the huge array of the assault of heaven, agitate the imagination. The eye looks towards Olympus: clouds involve

its heads; and the mist on Pelion becomes the dust rising, as if Ossa had been newly broken from its summit.

“Tum Pater Omnipotens misso perfregit Olympum
Flumine, et excussit subjecto Pelio Ossam.”

From this romantic spot, the travellers proceeded northwards to the populous and commercial city of Salonika. Constantinople was the next place of consequence in their survey, and it is described (p. 253. *et seq.*) at considerable length. After a residence of some time in this metropolis, Mr. Galt determined on visiting the tract of country lying to the north-west, in the direction of Adrianople, Sophia, and Widdin on the Danube. To travel this road, going and returning, was a journey of not less than 700 miles, a bold undertaking in the midst of winter; but Mr. Galt was too vigorous an equestrian to be deterred by the frost and snow of the Thracian mountains. In traversing the forbidding regions of Mount Hæmus, he observed his Tartar guides tie their handkerchiefs firmly over their ears; and he found that ‘this method of confining the insensible respiration by the ears has the effect of diffusing a degree of warmth over the face.’ He met, in his progress, with wretched accommodation, and still more wretched roads; and, by way of finish to the vexations of this singular journey, he had the mortification to be taken at Widdin for a Russian spy. — The Servians, though unanimous against their common enemy the Turks, are factious, and divided among themselves. Notwithstanding the late aggrandizement of Russia, it is by no means clear that Turkey will fall under her dominion so soon as some sanguine calculators prognosticate. Mr. Galt remarks (p. 360.) that ‘much of the raw material of a great nation exists in Turkey;’ and to those who anticipate the easy defeat of its armies, we would recommend a reference to the facts mentioned in our notice (M. R. Vol. lxi. p. 491.) of the life of Suwarrow.

In returning from Widdin, Mr. Galt experienced as much difficulty from the thaw as he had previously encountered from the frost. His description of the country is not calculated to attract to it the attention of future travellers:

‘In reflecting on the circumstances of the extensive tract of country through which I have passed, with my imperfect knowledge of its history, I am inclined to consider Bulgaria as a region which has never yet emerged from barbarism. Though, from the earliest times, the seat of wars, it exhibits none of those traces of permanent posts of defence, which are so common in other contested lands. The eye of the traveller searches in vain for the tower on the steep, and the beacon on the hill. It has nothing even similar to the little castles, of the chieftains, which are so numerous in Maina; nor are there to be seen, entire or in ruins, any structures resembling the baronial

baronial residences in the west of Europe. The towns present a slovenly spectacle of hovels, the hereditary abodes of poverty and ignorance. The churches are uniformly mean and neglected; and the inhabitants have none of those little domestic imitations of superior elegance, which, in countries where society is found in a greater variety of forms and conditions, serve to embellish the festivals of the peasantry.'

Of the succeeding part of the narrative, the most interesting passage relates to the city and island of Idra; of which the present population is understood to have originated in a colony of Greek refugees from the Morea. The Idriots are considered as the most intrepid navigators in the Archipelago, and the mercantile men among them have a character of less doubtful morality than their Greek neighbours. Their shipping is said (p. 377-) to amount to eighty sail, each of two hundred and fifty tons, or upwards; exclusive of a proportion of smaller vessels. Among them, as well as the Americans, it is common to pay the shipmaster and his crew by shares in the profits of the cargo; and hence much more gravity and regularity are observable in Idriot sailors, than among their seafaring brethren in other countries:

'The town is, certainly, a very extraordinary place. The houses rise from the border of the port, which is in the form of a horse-shoe, in successive tiers, to a great height, and many of them appear on the pinnacles of cliffs which would make a Bath or an Edinburgh garteeer giddy to look from. The buildings are all brightly white-washed; and a number of windmills being, almost constantly, in motion on the heights, the effect of the scene, with the addition of the bustle on the wharfs below, is, at once, surprising, and uncommonly cheerful.

'There are upwards of forty parochial churches in the town; and two of them are adorned with handsome steeples. Idra forms part of the diocese of Egina and Paros, one of the richest bishoprics of Greece.—The population of the town is said to exceed twenty thousand souls; and I think it is not exaggerated.

'There were, when I was there, no public schools but those of the parochial priests. Eight of the principal inhabitants had procured an Italian master for their children, to whom they paid about seventy-five pounds sterling *per annum*.

'Though the poor are numerous, there is no public provision for them; but the charity of individuals is liberal; and many allot the profits of a share of their vessels, and even sometimes more, to be regularly distributed among the needful.'

'It can hardly be said that this little state, for such it deserves to be considered, as it is governed by rulers of its own choosing, and is rather under the protection of the Sultan than subject to his immediate authority, has any laws; but it has many usages, which have all the force of laws. Litigated questions are decided by the magistrates collectively,

collectively, whose awards are recorded in the chancery of the city, and become precedents.—

‘ From Idra I sailed up the Gulph of Argos, passing the island and town of Specia. The island seemed to be green and pretty, but not much cultivated: the town had a new and thriving appearance. Like Idra, as I have already said, the inhabitants are entirely devoted to maritime trade; and their houses, like those of the Idriots, have a European aspect. We passed also near the mouth of the port of Bisati, a capacious and well sheltered harbour on the east side of the gulph. How many excellent ports in these parts are but little known, and less frequented than they are known! —

‘ I did not pass through Napoli Romania, as it lay at some distance on the left of the road which I took, and I was anxious to reach Argos in time to make another stage the same day. As far as beautiful scenery and fine weather can render any journey agreeable to an impatient traveller, I had every reason, in coming across the country to Voztizza, to be pleased with mine.’

Having now accompanied Mr. Galt through the most interesting part of his peregrinations, our next duty is to pass an opinion on the merits of his composition. As he characterizes his efforts at classical investigation by very modest terms in his preface, we shall make no farther animadversion on that head, than to caution our readers against following his example with regard to Grecian orthography: but we can conceive no adequate apology for those strange expressions and even inaccuracies in his own language with which the book is replete. Many of them are at variance with established usage; and some, we fear, are in opposition to common sense. ‘ This work,’ he says. (p. 1.) ‘ is part of a design of giving such an account of the countries of the Mediterranean as would tend to *familiarize them* to the British public.’ In the course of his peregrinations, he meets (p. 324.) with a Greek bishop, who, he says, ‘ was poetically prone;’ and a little farther on, he finds (p. 342.) a Turk who ‘ regaled him with sugarless coffee.’ Our troops in Spain and Portugal he calls (p. 402.) ‘ our gratuitous army now in the Peninsula;’ and our august metropolis is characterized in a very elaborate passage (p. 94.) as a ‘ multitudinous city.’ Mount Etna, on the other hand, meets with harder measure, and is pronounced (p. 92.) to be deficient in ‘ *aspectable grandeur*.’ The last is a favourite phrase, for in reading (p. 354.) his remarks on the walls of the fortress of Widdin we are told that, whatever the ‘ structures of modern fortification may gain in the means of defence, *more aspectable grandeur* was displayed by the antients.’ Mr. Galt had often occasion to complain of homely fare and rough treatment: but, at one village in Boeotia, (p. 198.) a Greek family was so attentive, that to have ‘ grumbled at the accommodation would have been an insult to *human kindness*.’

kindness.' Her Sicilian Majesty is described (p. 53.) as a woman of great activity, but she 'sees none of her descendants capable of contending with the *staunch destruction* that has been let loose on the race of Austria and the Bourbons.'

Of the author's political observations, the principal is his advice to our government to make a diligent use of the influence of the press among the nations of the Mediterranean:—nothing, he says, would more effectually second the general disposition of the inhabitants of these quarters to adhere to England in preference to France. He presents us with a variety of remarks on the aggrandizing projects of the French government;—projects on which we say little, both because we consider Bonaparte's ambition as rather cooled by the rough usage which he has experienced in Spain and Russia; and because, were he actually to gain ground in the Turkish empire, he would find the accession of territory a mere chimera in point of additional power.

Mr. Galt seems to have almost as strong an antipathy to ecclesiastics as his philosophic countryman Hume; and whether from an affectation of singularity or of superior information, he loses no opportunity of aiming a sarcasm at the church. The Greek and Catholic establishments are, in consequence of the direction of his travels, the chief objects of his animadversion in the present work: but we perceive symptoms nowise equivocal of a similar feeling towards the more enlightened members of the Protestant community. It would be a loss of time to enter on a refutation of such attacks; and it would be a matter of no little labour to correct the multiplied inaccuracies of this book in other respects: which consist partly in mistaken views of national policy; partly in less excusable misapprehensions of history. The radical cause of these errors is an inordinate haste both in travelling and writing. At Mr. Galt's rate of riding through a country, a traveller goes along the whole length of Greece in the course of a week. We find him (p. 174.) leaving Argos at three in the afternoon, and reaching Corinth that night; taking, moreover, by the way, a glance at the ruins of Mycenæ. This is a distance of fifty miles at least, and is nearly such a mode of proceeding as if a traveller were to describe England from stage-coach observation. Though the tourists passed Mantinea, and were at no great distance from Leuctra and Platæa, they made no attempt to ascertain the locality of these celebrated battles.—Mr. Galt promises a second work on the subject of Greece, and a separate report of the monuments of Athens. In these maturer labours, we shall hope to trace the benefit which may be administered by a reconsideration of his present book, and an attention to the observations which will have been made on it.

ART.

ART. II. *Mr. Coxe's Memoirs of the Kings of Spain of the House of Bourbon.*

[*Art. continued from our last Number, p. 294.*]

TRIUMPHANT as had hitherto been the career of the Princess Orsini, it was destined at length to experience the fate with which superior merit is too often visited in courts. In her case, merit and services did not want the aid of active vigilance and consummate address: but the individual who ruled was out of the reach of personal communication; his penetration, besides, was by no means always to be trusted; and, above all, the distance at which he was placed rendered it impossible to guard against imposition. The Princess became an object of jealousy to the Cardinal D'Estrées; who, notwithstanding his abilities, erudition, and experience in diplomacy, made but a ridiculous and sorry figure in the embassy to Spain, from which his admiring master was obliged to recall him. The Cardinal in his dispatches incessantly inveighed against the Princess, represented her stay at Madrid as prejudicial to public affairs, and urged her removal. She then presented a memorial to the King of France in answer to the charges brought against her, and requested permission to retire. Louis haughtily accepted her offer, and accused her of ruining his affairs by want of cordiality with his minister: but so firmly did Philip and his Queen support her cause, that the French King, laying aside his usual hauteur, signified his willingness that she should not be displaced:

‘These half apologies were not however sufficient to soothe the resentment of this high-spirited woman, who felt her power, and determined to assert it. She retorted the censures of Torci (which he had passed on her in a late communication) by complaints of the harshness with which he had treated her; and in demanding satisfaction for the recent insults which she had suffered, declared that, as she had received the command of the French King to retire, she would not remain at her post without an order equally positive. She proudly affected to overlook her past mortifications, while she displayed her own ascendancy, and the misconduct of her antagonists, by dictating to the court of Versailles a plan of conduct equally calculated to forward their views and save the honour of Philip.’

She acted, says the author, with the same spirit with which she wrote:

‘A reluctant and ungracious homage on the part of the Cardinal, rendered to her in consequence of the orders of the French King, was not sufficient to satisfy the Princess. She maintained the same spirited and dignified language, and refused to recede from her demand of satisfaction, till, at length, the hackneyed politicians and proud sovereign of France, were compelled to bend before a woman, who

had foiled and schooled them in the very moment of her intended disgrace.

‘ Louis himself condescended to solicit her good will, in a letter written with his own hand. “ If I had doubted of your zeal and fidelity, I would never have advised the King and Queen of Spain to retain you at Madrid. But being assured of your attachment, I have reason to believe that your continuance will be for the good of my service, as well as for that of the King, my grandson. You cannot better confirm my good opinion than by a perfect union with the Cardinal D’Estrées, who is honoured with my confidence, and charged with my orders in Spain; and be assured that I shall be happy to acknowledge my satisfaction with your conduct, by new marks of my esteem, and affection.”

‘ By this honourable restoration to power and confidence, the pride and vanity of the Princess were equally stimulated; and she exerted all her zeal and resources to convince the French court of the value of her ascendancy.’

The arrogant and consequential Cardinal was soon recalled, and continued his ill offices after he reached Versailles; and his successor, while he pretended abject devotion to the Princess, secretly employed every art to set the French monarch against her. An act which she committed, in order to expose the treachery of this base minister, was construed by Louis into an offence against his dignity: this was not to be forgiven; and a peremptory mandate was issued to the Spanish King and Queen to dismiss her. She was then ordered to leave Spain, and to pass by way of Thoulouse to Rome. To this order the Queen submitted with coolness, but in the sequel shewed a determination which it was found impossible to overcome, to have her Camerara-mayor restored to her:

‘ She caballed with the ministers of the cabinet who were never disinclined to oppose the exercise of foreign influence, and with those nobles who were dissatisfied with their exclusion from power. At her secret instigation, Montellano gave private orders in his extensive department, contrary to the decisions of the cabinet; and with her connivance, if not suggestion, all the members of administration united in demanding the re-establishment of the antient forms, and remonstrating against the increase of the military force.

‘ In consequence of this violent struggle, a total suspension of business prevailed, at the moment when prompt and vigorous exertions were necessary to resist the increasing force of the allies, and crush the cabals of the Austrian partizans. The most trifling, as well as the most important measures, were equally thwarted; and a scene of discontent and confusion ensued, which scarcely finds its parallel in the history of Spain.’—

‘ It was justly observed, by Tessé, that she seemed resolved to overthrow the kingdom and risk the crown rather than not satisfy her ruling passion, and attain the object of her ardent wishes. In fact, Grammont himself, however unwilling to acknowledge his defeat, was convinced

convinced by bitter experience of the vast ascendancy of the Princess; and that no other resource was left but her intervention.'

In vain did Louis meet her intreaties with answers dictated by his natural loftiness; the proud monarch at length saw that he must again yield. The Queen was not slow in perceiving this change, and, availing herself of it for the advantage of the Princess,

'She boldly requested, not that her favourite might be restored, but as an act of justice heard in her own defence. This artful application was successful, and drew from the King a gracious permission for the Princess to repair to Versailles, which was the signal of her triumph.'—

'The reception of the Princess at the court of Versailles far surpassed her most sanguine expectations. Persons of the highest distinction, as well as the Duke of Alva, ambassador of Spain, went out to meet and escort her to Paris; the members of the royal family honoured her with their visits; her residence was crowded like the royal levees, and by the express command of Louis, Torci, the most vehement opponent of her return, was constrained to testify his respects. Her appearance at Versailles was no less marked with honours and distinctions. She was received not as a suppliant, but as an injured person called into notice to render the disgrace and disappointment of her calumniators more public. She was admitted to frequent and confidential interviews with the King and Madame de Maintenon, and experienced from Louis such unusual marks of favour and condescension, as shewed his anxiety to efface the recollection of his past resentment.

'To the honour of this extraordinary woman, she bore this tide of returning favour with the same outward marks of serenity and firmness, as she had shewn in her disgrace. She was, however, too much gratified with such flattering and lavish distinctions to hasten from the scene of her triumph. Whether she hoped to exercise the same rule at Versailles as at Madrid, or whether she felt a real reluctance to encounter the difficulties of her former situation, is doubtful; but she suffered many months to elapse, equally disregarding the solicitations of her royal mistress, and the hints of the French cabinet that her presence was necessary in Spain.

'The visible ascendancy, which her captivating manners gained over the mind of Louis himself, at length awakened the jealousy of Madame de Maintenon, who omitted no effort to remove so dangerous a rival. In such circumstances no difficulties were permitted to prolong her stay; and she was allowed to new model at pleasure the government and administration of Spain. Orri was restored to his former post. At her recommendation a new ambassador was appointed to fill the place of Grammont; and her choice was better adapted to the situation of Spain, than any which had been made since the ministry of Harcourt; for Amelot, whom she selected, was not likely to embroil the court of Madrid with pretensions derived from high birth or station. He was president of the parliament of Paris, a man of great capacity and information, and had already distinguished

tinguished his abilities and address, in embassies to Venice, Switzerland, and Portugal. But the qualities which had recommended him for his office, were tried prudence, circumspection, insinuating suppleness of character, and above all, an unbounded devotion to his patroness.'—

'After long delays the Princess Orsini departed from a court of which she appeared as the reigning divinity; and her entrance into the capital of Spain resembled the triumphal entry of a sovereign into his own dominions. At the distance of two leagues, she was met by the King and Queen, and after an affectionate embrace, was invited to take a place in the royal carriage. But she was now become too discreet to violate the rigid rules of Spanish etiquette, by accepting an honour to which a subject was not entitled. She resumed her office of Camerara-mayor, by the resignation of the Duchess of Bejar, and the Queen seemed as if unable to testify the warmth of her affection to the Princess, or the extent of her gratitude to the King of France. Her return was hailed by both courts, as the panacea to close the wounds which her recall had inflicted. Louis himself, with a degree of humility to which he had long been a stranger, acknowledged his own error in recalling her from Madrid; and in his letters to the Queen, he observed, "The confidence you will please to place in her, together with her understanding and zeal, will restore the affairs of the monarchy, and effectually promote the interests of the two crowns."'

The expectation that the Princess's return would put an end to the existing anarchy was puerile, and the event soon proved its fallacy. Had she not been called to France, in all probability things would have gone on smoothly, and the new throne have been established: but, in her absence, habits had been formed, a spirit of opposition had been fostered, and affairs had taken a new course, which she was found unable to controul. This inability doubtless aggravated the calamities under which the country, shortly afterward, was so near sinking. If, however, she could not remove the evils which her departure occasioned, she appears more than once by her councils and measures to have saved the state from falling.

Our notice of this extraordinary female, though yet by no means closed, has carried us farther in the present narrative than was warranted by the course of events. In a passage which occurs earlier in the work than the part at present before us, the author, alluding to the matters at which we have been hinting, very justly observes;

'The crisis was now arrived which proved the folly of the system, pursued by Louis with regard to Spain. To imagine that he could direct with absolute sway the court of Madrid; that the King would quietly submit to be governed by the Queen; the Queen by the Princess Orsini; the Princess herself be perfectly subservient to the French ambassador; and that the ambassador would act with the Princess in confidence and concert; finally, to suppose that the Spaniards, a people zealously attached to their own customs and laws, and singularly

early jealous of foreign interference, would, without a murmur, see their government modelled and remodelled, their finances administered, their customs violated, their laws changed, by a nation for whom they fostered a deep-rooted antipathy, was the height of weakness and absurdity. Yet such were the expectations of a monarch of no ordinary sagacity, whose judgment was perverted by long prosperity, and the habits of absolute sway, no less than by the misinformation of his agents.'

Trivial, however, and of no signification, are the errors which the French monarch committed with regard to the interior government of Spain, compared with those which mark his foreign policy. It was not sufficient for his insatiable ambition to have at different times made important and extensive additions to his territories at the expence of Spain and of the empire, to have seated his grandson on the throne of the former kingdom, and to direct her counsels according to his pleasure, but he must gain very obnoxious acquisitions from its dependencies,—he instructs his ambassador to demand the Netherlands from his grandson, and the governor is cajoled to deliver its frontier-fortresses into his hands. The maritime powers, who had beheld unmoved his former aggressions, are now roused, the grand alliance is formed, the war of the succession commences, the plans of our future great deliverer are about to be realized, the edifice which it had cost Louis his whole life to rear is about to totter, and his house and his kingdom are only saved from destruction by almost miraculous events.

The observations which the ambassador Marsin expresses, on being instructed to make a demand of the Netherlands, form a prediction of circumstances which afterward happened, and shew the degree in which Louis was blinded by his wayward supidity :

" Philip, far from being able of his own authority to decide on so important a matter, has not even the power to *will* any thing ; for, except himself and his French attendants, *there is not perhaps a single person in Spain who will be convinced that such a proposal is founded on reason and justice.* The disaffected will accuse France of having no other view than to profit by the dismemberment of Spain ; national jealousy will be awakened into animosity ; the enemy will have a specious pretext for invective ; and a war must be expected, into which all the powers, who have not already taken part, will enter."

The revolting design was for a time laid aside, but was again revived, and in part carried into execution.

Mr. Coxe thus relates the conduct and arts which led to the memorable war of the succession :

' When Louis accepted the testament of Charles the Second, and placed his grandson on the throne of Spain ; it became his interest by a prudent and moderate conduct to obviate the jealousy of other

states, and to lessen those apprehensions which his past aggressions had excited, and which were now aggravated by the union of two powerful crowns in the same family. But fortunately for the independence of Europe he haughtily despised this obvious policy; he disdained to regard the feelings of other nations, and hurried forward to the accomplishment of his project of universal dominion, equally inattentive to the maxims of prudence, and the respect due to the most solemn engagements.

‘ Before the departure of Philip to take possession of the Spanish throne, Louis issued a formal act reserving all the rights of his grandson to the crown of France, in default of issue male to his brother, without adverting to past renunciations, or indicating the slightest precaution to prevent the union of the two crowns on the same head.

‘ Louis was aware that nothing could more alarm the Dutch than the prospect, however distant, that the Spanish Netherlands would fall under the domination of France. Yet instead of soothing their alarm, he had not only taken forcible possession of the Netherlands, and obtained an injunction from the court of Madrid placing those important provinces at his disposition; but he constructed new works even within sight of their fortresses, collected magazines, increased his army, and displayed proofs of a resolution to resume his former hostile designs against the republic.

‘ Above all, it was his interest to avoid irritating England, from whose neutrality under the venal reign of Charles, he had derived such essential advantages, in his wars against the house of Austria; and from whose complicated government and contending parties, he had little to fear, while he disguised his ambitious designs, or avoided trenching on her commercial interests. So far indeed had this maxim been successful, that he had seen a powerful and high-minded nation waste its strength and resources in internal struggles; and all the abilities and spirit of his able and inveterate enemy, William, obliged to bend to the rule of a predominant party.

‘ Instead, however, of pursuing this judicious system, he displayed his controul over the Spanish counsels by appropriating those sources of commercial wealth, which the two maritime powers had hitherto exclusively enjoyed or shared; by establishing French companies trading to Peru and Mexico; by wresting from the Dutch the *Asiento* for the supply of negroes to the Spanish colonies; and by excluding the ships of both the maritime powers from the Spanish ports.

‘ Interest and apprehension roused that feeling which had slumbered at the calls of honour and policy. The English began to tremble for the loss of their commercial profits; the forcible occupation of the Netherlands at once called forth a sentiment of alarm and indignation; and the people, as if awakened from a deep lethargy, began to appreciate the danger, arising from the union of the two great and powerful monarchies, formerly rivals, but now directed by the same head, and actuated by the same spirit.

‘ William profited by this change in the public sentiment, and though shackled by a Tory parliament, and thwarted by perverse factions, found means to obtain supplies, and to mature the preparations for

for a contest which he foresaw was inevitable. By his influence, subsidiary treaties were concluded with Denmark, Holland, and Brandenburg, and essential aid given to Leopold in combating the French influence in the empire.'—

'A few days after the signature of this treaty, Louis gave a new and public insult to the people of England, by acknowledging the pretended Prince of Wales as King of England, on the death of his father, James the Second, in breach of his solemn promise at the peace of Ryswick.'

The events of this war, and the negotiations which occurred in the course of it, are related with the author's usual clearness, but with too much conciseness; especially if we bear in mind that Britain was a leading power in the contest, and to what a height it raised her military fame. We fully concur in his just and temperate reflections on the conduct and intentions of the parties in these negotiations. Success is on the side of the allies, and they shew it offensively in their proposals; Louis's overtures are more plausible; and though the sincerity of both is equal, his address is very superior: the repeated conferences, therefore, which had peace for their object, eminently serve him, and only prejudice the allies.

Twice in the course of this eventful war, was the throne of Philip on the point of falling. Its first danger was occasioned by the capture of Barcelona, in consequence of the well-known daring enterprize of the Earl of Peterborough: the second, by the victory of Saragossa. Each time, the King was obliged to fly from his capital, and the allies made their entry into it. The passages of this work which describe those successive entries deserve our attention, especially at this moment:

'Before the departure of Philip from the capital, the light troops of the enemy already hovered on the neighbouring heights; and in a few days, a column of cavalry, the vanguard of the Portuguese army, under the Marquis of Villaverde, took possession of the capital, and proclaimed Charles the Third. Two days afterwards the Earl of Galway and the Marquis de las Minas made their triumphal entry at the head of the main body, which consisted of 30,000 Portuguese, English, and Dutch.

'But to their extreme disappointment, no crowds nor acclamations welcomed their arrival. The nobles who had written to invite their approach, instead of joining them, did not make their appearance, and were principally those fluctuating characters, who, in every political storm, are anxious only to secure their own safety, or persons who had experienced the displeasure of the court. Among these last, we distinguish the Count of Lemos, the Patriarch of the Indies, and Don Balthazar Mendoza, Bishop of Segovia. Oropesa, without openly espousing the cause of the Archduke, suffered himself to be captured by the allied troops, at Guadalaxara, with the Count de Haro his son-in-law. Scarcely, therefore, could the allies obtain re-

spectable members to fill the different departments of their ephemeral government. At Madrid, their orders were obeyed only from apprehension, and beyond the reach of their military force were set at defiance.' —

'With a view either to conciliate or awe the people, Charles made his public entry into Madrid, preceded by an escort of 2,000 horse, and followed by his body guard, officers of the household, and principal adherents. To evince his zeal for the Catholic faith, he visited the shrine of our Lady of Atocha, the most venerable in all Spain. But nothing could soften the antipathy of the inhabitants. Not even the pomp of the procession could attract any spectators except a few straggling children; and an ominous and mournful solitude, far more impressive than the most public opposition, reigned in the deserted streets and squares. Chagrin and disappointment overwhelmed the pageant monarch: on reaching the gate of Guadalaxara, he refused to continue his mock cavalcade to the palace of the Retiro, as was the usual custom, and made a hasty retreat through the gate of Alcalá, exclaiming, "Madrid is a desert!"

'The expression of Mancera was the universal sentiment. When pressed with menaces to acknowledge Charles, the aged noble, with a spirit which the weight of an hundred years could not suppress, replied, "I have but one God, one faith, and one king, to whom I have sworn allegiance. I am on the brink of the grave, and will not sully my honour for the few moments I have yet to live."

'Under these inauspicious circumstances, the Archduke was proclaimed King in the capital.'

It hence clearly appears that Philip had the hearts of the people with him, while the Archduke leaned solely on foreign aid. This is a circumstance which, we think, merited more attention, and demanded a farther investigation, than it here receives; and to it, we apprehend, may principally be ascribed the decided bias in favour of the Bourbon prince, under which the present history was penned, and which it imparts to its readers. — On the subjects of the desertion of the allies by England, her preposterous complaisance to the house of Bourbon, and her disgraceful abandonment of the brave Catalans, Mr. Coxe speaks the sentiments of an enlightened and impartial Briton, and expresses them in a manner worthy of his former self. Alluding to the fatal change in the royal counsels which immediately preceded these ignominious measures, to the grand exploits achieved under the auspices of the Queen's first ministry, and to the disgraceful course followed by their successors, he introduces the well-known passage from Bishop Fleetwood which, although somewhat too much in the style of a churchman, exhibits in a striking view the glory of the one and the infamy of the other epoch. With all the sympathies of a patriot, the author commiserates the fate of the brave Catalans, fondly dwells on their dauntless struggles, and reluctantly states their fatal catastrophe.

Next to Louis XIV., we have seen that the Princess Orsini was the person who at this time had the most influence over the affairs of Spain ; that not only men of the first consideration for their rank and services, but even princes, had in vain caballed against her ; that the mighty French monarch had been obliged to leave his designs unexecuted against her ; and that even he had been forced, after he had made her feel his power, to submit to her recall, and to humble himself before her. In continuing her eventful history, we are now to lay before our readers the singular stratagem of Alberoni, then the humblest of her creatures, to which she became a dupe, and which led to her ir retrievable downfall. Philip had lost his Queen ; and his grandfather, being sensible that by means of a wife he could be best managed, had destined several princesses for his bed ; but this was a matter which the Princess Orsini would trust to no other hands than her own. Mr. Coxe remarks that

‘ She, therefore, adroitly thwarted the recommendations of the King of France, while she turned her attention to discover a princess of a petty court, who, to an amiable disposition, and moderate talents, united graces of person, and whom she might govern by the ties of gratitude and respect. In this search, a casual suggestion of Alberoni, the subtle agent of the Duke of Parma, induced her to fix her choice on a princess of the house of Farnese.

‘ Being engaged in conversation with Alberoni, while the funeral procession of the late Queen was passing, she remarked, “ We must provide a new wife for the King,” and added the names of different princesses. The wily Italian raised objections to each, and penetrating her design, observed, “ You must find one quiet and docile, and not likely to interfere in state affairs.” The Princess asking, “ Where shall we discover such a person ? ” he rapidly recapitulated the princely families of Europe ; and then, as if by accident recollecting himself, carelessly mentioned Elizabeth Farnese, daughter of Edward, deceased Duke of Parma, adding, with the same tone of simplicity and indifference, “ She is a good girl, plump, healthy, and well fed, brought up in the petty court of her uncle, Duke Francis, and accustomed to hear of nothing but needle-work and embroidery.” He dexterously adverted also to her reversionary claims on the duchies of Parma and Tuscany, which might afford the means of regaining the Spanish power in Italy.’

The Princess, having in due time persuaded Philip to demand Elizabeth, secured a dispensation from the Pope, and the consent of the court of Parma. While all was proceeding according to her utmost wishes, and her scheme was on the eve of being realized,

‘ She discovered, with indignation and alarm, that she had been grossly deceived in the character of the future Queen ; who, instead of a simple and pliant girl, was of a temper and genius which scorned controul ;

controul; and though apparently obedient to the mandates of a severe mother and rigorous stepfather, possessed a spirit and understanding far above her age and sex. The information was not lost; for the jealous favourite instantly dispatched the most pressing orders to suspend the conclusion of the match. Her messenger arrived at Parma on the very morning of the ceremony; but as the object of his commission was suspected, he was stopped at the entrance of the city, and by bribes and threats induced to delay his appearance till the ensuing day.

‘ On the 16th of September the nuptials were celebrated at Parma, by Ulysses Joseph Gozzalini, Bishop of Imola, as papal legate; the Duke, as proxy for the Catholic King, receiving the hand of his niece. A messenger instantly conveyed the joyful tidings to Madrid; and the Princess, concealing her chagrin and disappointment, affected no less satisfaction than Philip himself.

‘ In a few days the new Queen took her departure with a splendid retinue, and embarking on board a galley at Sestri, reached Genoa after a troublesome passage. From thence she continued her journey by land. She was received with regal honours in her journey through France, and at St. Jean Pied de Port passed two days with her aunt, the Queen-dowager of Spain. On reaching the frontier she dismissed all her attendants, except the Marchioness of Piombino, and their places were supplied by the officers and servants of her new household. At Pampeluna she was met by Alberoni, who for his important services was created a count, and received the appointment of envoy from the court of Parma to that of Madrid.

‘ On the news of her approach the King quitted the capital to meet his bride at Guadalaxara, where the nuptials were to be consummated. He was accompanied by the Princess Orsini and her nephew Chalais, and surrounded with officers and domestics of her appointment. On the evening of the first day he reached Alcala; and here the Princess, who had resumed her office of Camerara-mayor, quitted him to meet her new mistress. She passed on to Xadraca, a small village four leagues beyond Guadalaxara, where the Queen arrived while she was taking some refreshment. She instantly quitted the table, met the Queen at the foot of the stairs, and, kneeling, kissed her hand. She was received with apparent complacency, and in virtue of her office conducted her royal mistress to her apartment.

‘ She began to express the usual compliments, and to hint at the impatience of the royal bridegroom. But she was thunderstruck when the Queen interrupted her with bitter reproaches, and affected to consider her dress and deportment as equally disrespectful. A mild apology served only to rouse new fury; the Queen haughtily silenced her remonstrances, and exclaimed to the guard, “Turn out that mad woman, who has dared to insult me.” She even assisted in pushing her out of the apartment.

‘ She called the officer in waiting, and commanded him to arrest the Princess, and convey her to the frontier. The officer, hesitating and astonished, represented that the King alone had power to give such an order. “Have you not,” she indignantly exclaimed, “his Majesty’s order to obey me without reserve?” On his reply in the affirmative,

affirmative, she impatiently rejoined, "Then obey me." As he still persisted in requiring a written authority, she called for a pen and ink, and wrote the order on her knee.

'The Princess was instantly placed in a coach, with only one female attendant, and two officers, without being permitted to change her dress. In this manner, and under an escort of fifty dragoons, she was conveyed during the whole night, which was so severe, that the hand of the coachman was frost-bitten and mortified; and so dark, that they were guided by the light of the snow. Astonishment and consternation at first benumbed her senses, and suspended her faculties. But this state of sullenness gave place to indignation and despair, and these passions were succeeded by deep and bitter reflections on such unexpected, such violent, and unjustifiable treatment. Gradually she began to imagine that the King, whom she supposed to be ignorant of what had passed, would resent such an abuse of his authority, and that some of her numerous adherents in the court would interest themselves in her behalf. Absorbed in these reflections, she passed the rest of this long and dreadful night without breaking silence, till morning arrived, and it was necessary to stop and bait the horses at a small hovel. She had now time to compose her countenance and weigh her expressions. To her companions she testified her extreme surprise at what had happened, and related the circumstances of her interview with the Queen. The two officers, accustomed, as all Spain had been, to fear and respect her more than even the sovereign, suggested such motives of consolation as occurred under the astonishment with which they were themselves overwhelmed.

'As she proceeded on the journey, and no news arrived from the King, her hopes became fainter and fainter, and at length gradually vanished. Circumstances which in the first emotion had not touched, now began to affect her. No beds, no provisions, no change of dress, nor even of linen; no defence against the severity of the weather, was to be expected till she arrived at St. John de Luz. These multiplied inconveniencies excited the most violent transports of rage in a woman so imperious and ambitious, so long accustomed to unbounded power and public consideration, so long habituated to the servility of a court, and the luxuries and indulgencies of authority and affluence.

'On the third day she was joined, at a small village, by her two nephews, the Count of Chalais and the Prince of Lanti, with a letter from the King.'

This letter was cold and formal; it permitted her to remain at the place where Chalais might overtake her, and promised that her pensions should be duly discharged. — She at length reached Paris: but the interference of the Duke of Orleans obliged her, after a short residence, to quit the court of Versailles:

'Of the remaining life of the Princess few notices are preserved. All that we know with certainty is, that her attempts to regain the favour of Louis, and the confidence of Madame de Maintenon, were fruitless. During the height of her power, she had employed her favourite, D'Aubigné, to build a magnificent palace at Chanteloupe, which

which she destined as her future residence, purposing to exchange her principality in the Netherlands, for the province of Touraine, and the Pays d'Amboise, to revert to the crown on her death. But in her disgrace, she never acknowledged this pompous edifice as her own, and left it to be occupied by D'Aubigné. She hovered about Paris and Versailles till the last illness of Louis; but dreading the resentment of the Duke of Orleans, in the event of his death, she quitted Paris; and, after being refused an asylum in Holland, resided a short time at Avignon: she next established herself at Genoa. In vain she solicited permission to resume her residence at Rome, during the life of Pope Clement: but obtained her request under his successor, and attached herself to the establishment of the Pretender, doing the honours of his house, and as Duclos observes, "consoling herself with the shadow, in default of the substance, of royalty." She died in 1722 at an advanced age.

'The intrigues which occasioned the sudden disgrace of this celebrated woman in the very meridian of her power, and the singular manner in which it was effected, have long exercised curiosity and conjecture. The most probable opinion seems to be that Louis the Fourteenth was offended with her conduct in retarding the peace, and concluding the marriage of Philip; that the pride of Madame de Maintenon was wounded by the ostentation and ingratitude of a woman who in the height of favour forgot her past obligations; Philip himself was shocked with her attempts to raise herself to his bed and throne; and indignant at the bondage in which she had long held him; lastly, the young Queen was offended by the attempt to break off the marriage, and was anxious to free herself from the superintendence of a woman whose abilities she knew, and whose controul she dreaded.

'The interests of all parties uniting in her disgrace, little difficulty occurred in arranging the means, though the particulars are uncertain. It appears, however, that Philip, not having the courage to dismiss her in person, sent a private order to the Queen, and left the execution to her spirit and discretion. A part of the letter containing the order has been preserved. After requesting the Queen to dismiss the Princess, he added, "at least take good care not to delay it; for if she converses with you only two hours, she will captivate you."

Although Philip has already been so much under our notice, it may be proper to offer to our readers a striking sketch which the author gives of him at this time:

'Melancholy, indolent, and reserved, the slave of habit, uxorious without delicate attachment, fond of splendid enterprizes without the talent to plan or resources to pursue them, he was formed to be governed by his Queens, to become the instrument of those designs to which they were prompted by their own interests and passions, or the suggestions of their advisers. The death of his first consort, and the dismissal of the Princess. Orsini, produced no change in his solitary and monotonous life.'

To the domineering influence over the affairs of Spain and of Europe, which the Princess Orsini had so long enjoyed, succeeded Philip's new Queen : but she had been cast in a less happy mould ; she had not the enlarged views, nor the quick discernment, nor the command over others, which distinguished the unrivalled Princess ; nor was her sway over her morbid husband more uniform or more absolute. It is true that the Queen at this time had no Louis XIV. to consult, or to thwart her ; and that,

‘ Though educated in a retired corner of the palace of Parma, and secluded from the world by a severe and vigilant mother, she had assiduously cultivated her mind, and was better acquainted with history and politics than the generality of her sex. She also spoke several languages, and possessed an elegant taste for the polite arts. She was plain, but not interesting in countenance, graceful in person, obliging in her address when she wished to conciliate, and gifted with the most fascinating powers of conversation. Imperious and aspiring by nature, she was habituated to constraint and self-command by the mode of her education ; a perfect mistress of dissimulation ; artful and stedfast in her designs, and animated with a spirit which neither time, difficulty, nor opposition, could subdue.

‘ All these qualities she called into action to govern her doting husband. Aware that he was jealous of his authority, she ruled without appearing to rule, by practising all the refinements of coquetry, praising him for the beauty of his person, granting or withholding her caresses to serve her political purposes, and affecting the utmost zeal for his glory. She was indefatigable in her attentions, never contradicting him, approving what he approved, or disliking what he disliked ; yet adroitly and vigilantly watching all the emotions of his mind, and leading him to adopt her wishes, however contrary to his own. She strengthened his aversion to society ; she shared his only and favourite amusement of the chase ; she passed a perpetual tête à tête, with a hypochondriac and unsocial husband, discovering neither disgust nor fatigue ; and enlivening the tedium of constraint, solitude, and etiquette, with an inexhaustible fund of gaiety and good humour. She thus acquired and consolidated a power which neither time nor accident could shake, and to the last hour of his reign was the real sovereign of Spain.’

Of the origin and rise of Alberoni, who was the first guide of this Princess, and her master in the science of politics, we have here the following account :

‘ Giulio Alberoni was the son of a labouring gardener in a suburb of Placentia, and was born May 21. 1664. He was brought up conformably to his humble station, without instruction, even in the lowest rudiments of learning ; and for a time assisted in the daily labours of his father. He shewed little aptitude for this toilsome occupation ; but like the celebrated Sixtus the Fifth displayed striking proofs of premature talents, and an ardent desire of instruction. About the age of twelve he became in succession servant to the

sextons

sextons or clerks of two parochial churches. In this situation he attracted the notice of a priest, who taught him to read ; afterwards he acquired the rudiments of the Latin tongue ; and finally became a pupil in the school of the Jesuits. Under these able masters he displayed equal ability and industry, and left several volumes in his own hand-writing, which were preserved in the time of his biographer Poggiali, and shew an intimate and extensive acquaintance with sacred and profane literature. To a lively, bold, and enterprising genius, he joined a supple and insinuating behaviour and a watchful attention to seize every opportunity of improving his knowledge, which his sagacious mind had discovered to be the surest instrument of fortune.*

Chance placed him in the way of the Duke of Vendome.

* The vivacity and insinuating address of the young priest had already captivated all to whom he became known, had gained him numerous patrons, had converted those patrons into friends, and had inspired them with the same solicitude for his interests as for their own. He was no less successful in acquiring the favour of the rough and soldier-like Vendome, than in pleasing his more refined and polished countrymen. During the course of the negotiation, he enlivened the tediousness of discussion with sallies of wit and buffoonery ; he gratified the gross taste of the French commander by the most extravagant flattery, and libertine conversation, and by preparing with his own hand such poignant Italian dishes as were calculated to provoke a jaded appetite.

At this time, he was intrusted by the Duke of Parma to carry on a negotiation with the Duke of Vendome, and was appointed to a canonry of Parma :

‘ As he was also the guide and interpreter of many French officers of high distinction, who repaired to the court, a salary was added to the donation, with a house in the city to receive his military guests. In this situation he is described by a contemporary writer : “ The French officers are pleased with his jocose humour ; they amuse the Duke of Vendome with repeating the jests, repartees, and witty conceits of Alberoni, whose person is as comical as his conversation ; for he has a monstrous large head, a swarthy complexion, a very short neck, broad shoulders, a very low stature. In a word, he is a pigmy, of whom fortune has made a Colossus.” ’

As we have not long since taken notice of a lively and able account of the administration of Alberoni, and of his more offensive brother-adventurer Ripperda*, we must now pass over the interesting portion of Philip's reign in which these persons made so conspicuous a figure.

[To be concluded in our next Number.]

* See Rev. Vol. lvii. N. S. p. 288.

ART. III. *Junius* : including Letters by the same Writer, under other Signatures, (now first collected.) To which are added his confidential Correspondence with Mr. Wilkes, and his private Letters addressed to Mr. H. S. Woodfall. With a preliminary Essay, Notes, Fac-similes, &c. 8vo. 3 Vols. 2l. 2s. Boards. Rivingtons, &c. 1812.

THIS new edition of the writings of the celebrated Junius comes before the public with considerable claims to attention. The death of Mr. Woodfall, and the lapse of more than forty years, have at length authorized the publication of the private letters between that gentleman and his unknown correspondent : since most of the persons mentioned in them have paid the debt of nature; and in the case of the few who survive, the length of time that has intervened has completely blunted the asperity of the strictures contained in them. The reader, however, must not flatter himself that these private communications are conclusive in settling the long disputed question of the identity of this extraordinary writer : in fact, the present volumes are, in some respects, rather calculated to excite than to satisfy curiosity ; for the editor (the son of Mr. H. S. Woodfall) does not undertake to communicate the real name of Junius; and he introduces the late Mr. Woodfall (Vol. i. p. 150.) as admitting that he was "not absolutely certain of it himself." Several circumstances, however, are now brought together, to enable us to ascertain more completely the residence, the habits, and the feelings of the real Junius ; so that, from the variety of qualities ascertained to be indispensable in the case of a candidate for this distinction, the public has it in its power, with very little difficulty, to judge at least negatively, and to discard the pretensions of many persons whose friends or admirers have injudiciously declared them to be the authors of these much distinguished addresses.

By the additions now made to the letters of Junius, the bulk of the work is expanded to double its former size : they may be thus enumerated :

Vol. i. contains an essay of considerable length, on the manner of conducting the correspondence between Junius and Woodfall ; and on the claims of various persons to the honour of having written these papers. This essay is followed by the private letters of Junius to Mr. Woodfall, which extend from the year 1769 to 1773. Though they consist, in general, of short notes, the length of the editor's explanations gives considerable extension to this part of the book. — Next comes the private correspondence between Junius and Wilkes in 1771 ; the originals of which are not, as in the other cases, in the possession

possession of the editor, but of a gentleman who deemed this a suitable channel for their publication.

Vol. ii. is occupied chiefly by the public letters of Junius, accompanied by notes, and freed from many typographical errors of former editions. Then begin what the editor terms the 'Miscellaneous Letters of Junius;' which consist of a variety of political essays transmitted by that mysterious writer to the late Mr. Woodfall, for insertion in the paper of the latter, called the *Public Advertiser*. They are in general possessed of considerable interest, but are finished, in point of style, with much less care than the select compositions under the signature of Junius.

Vol. iii. is altogether composed of these miscellaneous letters, and of papers connected with them. They embrace a period of five years, from the middle of 1767 to the middle of 1772, are subscribed with different names, as Poplicola, Mnemon, Atticus, Lucius, Brutus, Domitian, Vindex, &c.; and they have been selected by the present editor from the columns of the *Public Advertiser*, throughout an extent of 'six solid folios.' In assigning all these compositions to the pen of Junius, the editor has been guided by similitude of style and sentiment, as well as by acknowledgements and references in the private correspondence between Junius and Woodfall. No mention is made of the MS. of these essays having escaped the fate which generally attends the writings that pass through the hands of printing-house compositors: but nothing, we are assured, 'that was at any time disavowed by Junius has been introduced into this collection.' Those writers, who may find in themselves examples of the labour with which elegance of composition is acquired, will be gratified in observing a correspondent slowness on the part of even the celebrated Junius. Though he had arrived probably at the age of fifty before he began to contribute to the columns of the *Public Advertiser*, two years of almost continued political discussion elapsed before the appearance of his finished pieces.

We proceed to extract from the new materials some circumstances connected with the leading features in the character of Junius. Of his disinterestedness with regard to pecuniary matters, the following particulars afford sufficient evidence:

'When the first genuine edition of his letters was on the point of publication, Mr. Woodfall again urged him either to accept half its profits or to point out some public charity or other institution to which an equal sum might be presented. His reply to this request is contained in a paragraph of one of his *Private Letters*, No. 59. and confers credit on both the parties. "What you say about the profits is very handsome. I like to deal with such men. As for myself

myself be assured that *I am far above all pecuniary views*, and no other person I think has any claim to share with you. Make the most of it therefore; and let your views in life be directed to a solid, however moderate independence: without it no man can be happy nor even honest." Not long after the commencement of his correspondence with the printer of the Public Advertiser, he wrote to him as follows: "For the matter of assistance, be assured that, if a question should arise upon any writings of mine, you shall not want it;—in point of money be assured you shall never suffer." In perfect and honourable consonance with which, when the printer was at length involved in a prosecution in consequence of Junius's letter to the King, he wrote to him as follows: "If your affair should come to a trial, and you should be found guilty, you will then let me know what expence falls particularly on yourself: for I understand you are engaged with other proprietors. Some way or other *you* shall be reimbursed."—

That Junius moved in the immediate circle of the court, and was intimately and confidentially connected, either directly or indirectly, with all the public offices of government, is, if possible, still clearer than that he was a man of independent property; for the feature that peculiarly characterized him, at the time of his writing, and that cannot even now be contemplated without surprise, was the facility with which he became acquainted with every ministerial manoeuvre, whether public or private, from almost the very instant of its conception.'—

His secret intelligence respecting public transactions is as extraordinary. "You may assure the public," says he, in a private letter, Jan. 17. 1771, "that a squadron of four ships of the line is ordered to be got ready with *all possible expedition* for the East Indies. It is to be commanded by Commodore Spry. Without regarding the language of ignorant or interested people, depend upon the assurance I give you, that every man in administration looks upon war as inevitable."

In many cases he was able to indicate even to the printer of the Public Advertiser himself the real names of those who corresponded with him under fictitious signatures. "Your Veridicus," says he, in one letter, "is Mr. Whitworth *." I assure you I have not confided in him." "Your Lycurgus," he observes in another letter, "is a Mr. Kent, a young man of good parts upon town." "

A man who took pains to collect so much information, and who applied it with an unsparing hand to the exposure of so many persons, could not fail to excite a host of enemies. Hence the extraordinary precaution which he adopted to avoid discovery, and the vehemence with which he resented every effort to detect him. Garrick having made himself busy in an endeavour of this kind, and having hinted at Court that he might probably write no more, Junius sent Woodfall a note of severe castigation, to be copied by the printer, and transmitted to the inquisitive actor. It was as follows:

* Richard Whitworth, Esq., M. P. for Stafford.

‘ TO MR. DAVID GARRICK.

‘ NOV. 10. 1771.

‘ I am very exactly informed of your impertinent inquiries, and of the information you so busily sent to Richmond, and with what triumph and exultation it was received. I knew every particular of it the next day. — Now mark me, vagabond. — Keep to your pantomimes, or be assured you shall hear of it. Meddle no more, thou busy informer ! — It is in *my* power to make you curse the hour in which you dared to interfere with

‘ JUNIUS.’

Mr. Woodfall, being on terms of cordiality with Garrick, considered this address as too acrimonious, and informed his invisible correspondent that he had taken the liberty of postponing the transmission of the letter. Junius then made the following answer :

‘ I have no doubt of what you say about David Garrick — so drop the note. The truth is, that in order to curry favour, he made himself a greater rascal than he was. Depend upon what I tell you ; — the King understood that he had found out the secret by his own cunning and activity. — As it is important to deter him from meddling, I desire you will tell him that I am aware of his practices, and will certainly be revenged, if he does not desist. An appeal to the public from Junius would destroy him.’

At the end of this letter, however, he says, ‘ upon reflection, I think it absolutely necessary to send that note to D. G.’

The age of Junius is a consideration of some consequence, as a test of the validity of the arguments on the probability of certain persons having written the letters in question. We find Junius taking occasion, in his private letters to Woodfall, to allude to his ‘ long experience of the world ;’ from which, and from the more indubitable evidence afforded by the maturity of his reflections, we are justified in concluding that he had arrived at the period of life already mentioned. From the frequency of his communications with Woodfall, it is evident that he resided almost constantly in London, or the vicinity, during the years 1769, 1770, and 1771 ; and the extent of labour bestowed by him on his various addresses to the public much exceeded any idea which a reader can form, from that selection of his letters which constitutes the book currently known by his name. He was under the necessity of composing, during the three years in question, a multitude of other letters for insertion in the Public Advertiser, in defence of the arguments advanced with the signature of Junius : since the latter were attacked by a tribe of writers on the side of ministry, of whom he chose to take no notice in his more elaborate compositions. When he first assumed the office of political censor, he could have no conception

conception of the magnitude of the labour with which he was about to encumber himself :

‘ Such finished forms of composition bear in themselves the most evident marks of elaborate forecast and revisal, and the author rather boasted of the pains he had bestowed upon them than attempted to conceal his labour. In recommending to Woodfall to introduce into his purposed edition various letters of his own writing under other signatures, he adds, “ If you adopt this plan I shall point out those which I would recommend ; for you know, I do not nor have I time to give equal care to them all. — As to Junius I must wait for fresh matter, as *this* is a character which must be kept up with credit.” The private note accompanying his first letter to Lord Mansfield commences thus : “ The inclosed, though begun within these few days, *has been greatly laboured* ; it is very correctly copied ; and I beg that you will take care that it be literally printed as it stands.” The note accompanying his last and most celebrated letter observes as follows : “ At last I have concluded *my great work*, and assure you with no small labour.” On sending the additional papers for the genuine edition he asserts, “ I have no view but to serve you, and consequently have only to desire that the Dedication and Preface may be correct. Look to it — if you take it upon yourself, I will not forgive your suffering it to be spoiled. *I weigh every word ; and every alteration, in my eyes at least, is a blemish.*” —

‘ His most elaborate letters are that to the King, and that to Lord Mansfield upon the law of bailments : one of his most sarcastic is that to the Duke of Grafton, of the date of May 30. 1769 ; and one of his best and most truly valuable, that to the printer of the Public Advertiser, dated Oct. 5. 1771, upon the best means of uniting the jarring sectaries of the popular party into one common cause.’

The private letters of Junius concur with his public compositions in bearing testimony to the violence of his temper. In his effusions against those whom he considered as political delinquents, he knows no medium in his estimate of criminality. Of the Duke of Grafton he says in his public letters, “ Every villain in the kingdom is your friend ;” while Lord Mansfield is declared to be “ the worst and most dangerous man in the kingdom.” In writing to Woodfall privately about Lord Barrington, he says, “ The proceedings of this wretch are unaccountable. Next to the Duke of Grafton, I verily believe the blackest heart in the kingdom belongs to Lord Barrington.” The following specimens of his private correspondence contain several curious particulars, some of which are abundantly illustrative of the temper of the writer :

‘ SIR,

‘ *Wednesday night, Aug. 16. 1769.*

‘ I have been some days in the country, and could not conveniently send for your letter until this night. Your correction was perfectly right, the sense required it, and I am much obliged to you. When

B b 2

I spoke

I spoke of *innumerable* blunders, I meant Newberry's pamphlet; for I must confess that upon the whole your papers are very correctly printed.

' Do with my letters exactly what you please. I should think that to make a better figure than Newberry, some others of my letters may be added, and so throw out a hint, that you have reason to suspect they are by the same author. If you adopt this plan, I shall point out those which I would recommend; for you know, I do not, nor indeed have I time to give equal care to them all.

' I know Mr. Onslow perfectly. He is a false silly fellow. Depend upon it he will get nothing but shame by contending with Horne.

' I believe I need not assure you, that I have never written in any other paper since I began with yours. As to Junius, I must wait for fresh matter, as this is a character which must be kept up with credit. Avoid prosecutions if you can; but, above all things, avoid the Houses of Parliament, — there is no contending with them. At present you are safe, for this House of Commons has lost all dignity, and dares not do any thing. Adieu, C.'

' Thursday night, Oct. 5. 1769.

' I shall be glad to see the packet you speak of. It cannot come from the Cavendishes, though there be no end of the family. They would not be so silly as to put their arms on the cover. As to me, be assured that it is not in the nature of things, that they, or you, or any body else should ever know me, unless I make myself known. All arts, or enquiries, or rewards, would be equally ineffectual.

' As to you, it is clearly my opinion, that you have nothing to fear from the Duke of Bedford. I reserve some things expressly to awe him, in case he should think of bringing you before the House of Lords. — I am sure I can threaten him privately with such a storm, as would make him tremble even in his grave. You may send to-morrow to the same place without farther notice; and if you have any thing of your own to communicate, I shall be glad to hear it.

' C.'

' SIR,

' Monday evening, Nov. 12. 1770.

' The enclosed*, though begun within these few days, has been greatly laboured. It is very correctly copied, and I beg you will take care that it be literally printed as it stands. I don't think you run the least risque. We have got the rascal down, let us strangle him if it be possible. This paper should properly have appeared to-morrow, but I could not compass it, so let it be announced to-morrow, and printed Wednesday. If you should have any fears, I entreat you send it early enough to Miller, to appear to-morrow night in the London Evening Post. In that case, you will oblige me by informing the Public to-morrow, in *your own paper*, that a real Junius will appear at night in the London. — Miller, I am sure, will have no scruples.

' Lord Mansfield has thrown ministry into confusion, by suddenly resigning the office of Speaker of the House of Lords.'

* Letter xli. Junius to the Right Hon. Lord Mansfield.'

' Wednesday

' Wednesday night, Nov. 21. 1770.

' I shall be very glad to hear from your friend at Guildhall. — You may, if you think proper, give my compliments to him, and tell him, if it be possible, I will make use of any materials he will give me. I will never rest till I have destroyed or expelled that wretch. — I wish you joy of yesterday. — The fellow truckles already.' *

It is in the vehemence of his personal feelings that we are to seek for several of the remarkable characteristics of his style. Indignant invective, confident interrogation, and proud disdain of an adversary, are as conspicuous in the letters of Junius as the more attractive qualities of perspicuity and classical accuracy. — The occurrence of grammatical errors in his letters has been much noticed, without acknowledging that they must have been owing to the impossibility of a correction of the press by a concealed author. The first partial collection of these letters was published by Newberry, and produced an admonition from Junius, which was conveyed, as usual, through the medium of Woodfall :

' (Private.)

' SIR,

' July 17th, 1769.

' Mr. Newberry having thought proper to reprint my Letters, I wish at least he had done it correctly. You will oblige me much by giving him the following hint to-morrow.

" Mr. Newberry having thought proper to reprint Junius's Letters, might at least have corrected the errata, as we did constantly.

" Page 1. Line 13. for *national* read *rational*.

— 3. — 4. — *was* — *were*.

— 5. — 15. — *indisputable* — *indispensable*.

Letter 7. — 4. — *in all mazes* — *in all the mazes*.

— 15. — 24. — *rightest* — *brightest*.

— 48. — 2. — *indiscreet* — *indirect*."

' I did not expect more than the life of a newspaper, but if this man will keep me alive, let me live without being offensive.

' *Speciosa quæro passere tigres.*'

It is now time to advert to the editor's investigations of the pretensions of several persons to whom the letters of Junius have been ascribed. Burke, it is clear, could not have produced a succession of compositions in a style precisely the reverse of his own; nor could he have consented to have disparaged his own talents in the manner adopted by Junius in his letter of 5th October 1771. Moreover, the politics of Burke and of

* * In allusion to the unanimous judgment of the Court of King's Bench, on the verdict for printing the Letter to the King, given Nov. 20th, 1770; by which Lord Mansfield lost his object, and the printer was granted a new trial.'

Junius were in direct opposition ; the former being a decided partizan of Lord Rockingham, and the latter of Mr. Grenville. Junius was an eager advocate for triennial parliaments ; Burke was an inveterate enemy to them. The late Mr. Woodfall repeatedly denied that Mr. Burke was the author of these letters, and Burke himself made a solemn declaration to the same effect to Sir William Draper. Still more conclusive than personal asseveration is the fact that Burke carried on a prosecution for a libel in 1783 against Mr. Woodfall, and could not be persuaded by any intreaty to drop it. The cause was tried in July 1784, and a verdict of 100*l.* was given against the printer, and rigorously exacted by the prosecutor ; which was morally impossible had Burke been the writer of the letters of Junius, and consequently in some measure in the power of the printer. The manner in which Burke expressed himself in the House of Commons, with regard to the boldness of Junius, deserves also to be recorded :

‘ How comes this Junius to have broke through the cobwebs of the law, and to range uncontrouled, unpunished, through the land ? The myrmidons of the court have been long, and are still, pursuing him in vain. They will not spend their time upon me, or you, or you. No : they disdain such vermin, when the mighty boar of the forest, that has broke through all their toils, is before them. But what will all their efforts avail ? No sooner has he wounded one than he lays down another dead at his feet. For my part, when I saw his attack upon the King, I own my blood ran cold. I thought he had ventured too far, and there was an end of his triumphs, not that he had not asserted many truths. Yes, Sir, there are in that composition many bold truths, by which a wise prince might profit. It was the rancour and venom, with which I was struck. In these respects the North Briton is as much inferior to him, as in strength, wit, and judgment. But while I expected in this daring flight his final ruin and fall, behold him rising still higher, and coming down souse upon both Houses of Parliament. Yes, he did make you his quarry, and you still bleed from the wounds of his talons. You crouched, and still crouch, beneath his rage. Nor has he dreaded the terrors of your brow, Sir ; he has attacked even you — he has — and I believe you have no reason to triumph in the encounter. In short, after carrying away our Royal Eagle in his pounces, and dashing him against a rock, he has laid you prostrate. King, Lords, and Commons are but the sport of his fury. Were he a member of this house, what might not be expected from his knowledge, his firmness, and integrity ? He would be easily known by his contempt of all danger, by his penetration, by his vigour. Nothing would escape his vigilance and activity. Bad ministers could conceal nothing from his sagacity ; nor could promises nor threats induce him to conceal any thing from the public.”’

Mr. William Gerard Hamilton, usually designated by the name of “Single-Speech Hamilton,” has been suspected of being the
author

author of these letters : but his characteristic equanimity is altogether opposite to the keen and sometimes coarse acrimony of Junius. He had none of that minute commissarial knowledge of military matters which is conspicuous in the earlier papers of Junius ; and he filled likewise the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer in Ireland at the time of and long after the composition of these addresses. The fact is that he had neither energy nor personal boldness enough for such an undertaking. — Dr. Butler, Bishop of Hereford, has been likewise mentioned in the same manner : but he was no more of a hero in political conflicts than Hamilton, and was likewise remarkable for mildness of temper. — General Lee, well known in the American war, is reported to have declared that he was Junius : but, in confutation of this improbable rumour, it is sufficient to notice the fact that, in 1767, when Junius was busily engaged in transmitting, under various signatures, political essays to Woodfall's paper, General Lee was travelling in Poland. In 1769, one of the most active years of Junius in contributions to the *Public Advertiser*, the General was in like manner rambling over the Continent. — As to the suspicion of Mr. Wilkes being the man, we need only remark that the author of the *North Briton* would never have abused himself in the manner exhibited in the letters of Junius.

We come next to the pretensions of Mr. Hugh Macauley Boyd, which have been brought forwards, of late years, with great confidence. Boyd was an Irishman of respectable family, and educated for the bar, which he neglected, and passed an unsettled life in party-writing and other political discussions. He was the author of the "*Freeholder*," published at Belfast in 1776 ; of the "*Whig*," a series of revolutionary papers written four years afterward in London ; and of the "*Indian Observer*," a periodical miscellany, printed at Madras in 1793. In conversation he was an enthusiastic admirer of Junius ; and in his composition he was an imitator, or rather a copier, of that writer's style. The allegations of his having been the author of the much-disputed letters rest on individual opinion and casual coincidences ; but the friends of Mr. Boyd well knew that he was too young to possess either the experience or the talents which are displayed in the letters of Junius, and that his acknowledged compositions are altogether inferior to them. Mr. Woodfall denied the pretensions of Boyd as peremptorily as those of Burke or Hamilton ; and that gentleman's character for veracity was unimpeachable. Junius was evidently in affluent circumstances, and refused to take any share of the profits attendant on the publication of his works ; Boyd, on the other hand, laboured under great pecuniary difficulties, and was ready to accept whatever was offered to him.

The claims of Dunning, Lord Ashburton, deserve much more attention than those of the preceding writers. His age and station in society, his sarcastic habits, his political attachments, and his ordinary residence during the period in question, all seem to favour the supposition of his being Junius : but two things are conclusive on the opposite side. Dunning had been through life too much of a lawyer to write in the style of Junius ; and at the time of the appearance of these letters, he occupied the appointment of Solicitor General, a situation which, to his feelings, would have been totally incompatible with the publication of attacks on the King.

The other persons, who have been honoured with a similar accusation, will not detain us long. Mr. Flood, the Irish orator, was in his own country during the summer of 1768 ; the time when Junius was corresponding with Woodfall, with a rapidity which could not have been maintained at more than a day's journey from London.—Mr. John Roberts, private secretary to Mr. Pelham, and Mr. Samuel Dyer, a man of note in the literary world, both charged with these letters, were both in their graves before the date of the last private letters of Junius to Woodfall, the originals of which remain in the possession of the editor of this work. — Mr. Charles Lloyd, a deputy-teller of the Exchequer, was lying on his death-bed at the date of the last letter of Junius ; a composition which was decidedly indicative of the possession of full health and spirits.—To this long list of names has been added, within these few months, and subsequently to the appearance of the book under review, the late Marquis of Lansdowne. Without entering into any discussion, we may, from our own sources of information, take on ourselves to give, in this respect, that denial which the editor would probably have made if the supposition had appeared antecedently to his publication.—After all these negative arguments, we come at last to a candidate of a very different character—we mean Lord George Sackville. His Lordship's talents were well known, and his political principles were the same with those which were so warmly espoused by Junius. It was on him that the suspicions of Sir William Draper, after the denial of Burke, were wholly fixed. The assertions of a verbal disavowal having been given by his Lordship were too general to merit much attention ; and an objection introduced (p. 161.) by the present editor ought, perhaps, to be regarded as the qualification with which a cautious man is disposed to treat a communication not yet ripe for absolute disclosure. The familiarity with military details, that is discovered by Junius, is in correspondence with his Lordship's professional habits. A comparison of the handwriting of Junius and Lord George, could hardly fail to be decisive ;

sive; and it is remarkable, that while the editor has produced *fac-similes* of the penmanship of Boyd, Wilkes, Horne Tooke, Burke, Dunning, and even of General Lee, he has avoided to subject the claim of Lord George Sackville to this test. — The difficulty of ascertaining the real author of these letters will surprise us the less, when we consider the danger to which a discovery would have subjected him, and the variety of precautions which in consequence became necessary :

‘ In his last letter to Sir W. Draper, who had endeavoured by every means to stimulate him to a disclosure of himself, he observes, “ As to me, it is by no means necessary that I should be exposed to the resentment of the worst and the most powerful men in this country, though I may be indifferent about yours. Though you would *fight*, there are others who would *assassinate*.” To the same effect is the following passage in a confidential letter to Mr. Woodfall. “ I must be more cautious than ever : I am sure I should not survive a discovery three days ; or, if I did, they would attain me by bill.” — In one of his Private Letters, indeed, he observes, “ As to me be assured it is not in the nature of things that they (the Cavendish family) or you or any body else should ever know me, unless I make myself known : all arts, or enquiries, or rewards, would be equally ineffectual.” But in other letters he seems not a little afraid of detection or surmise. “ Tell me candidly,” he says, at an early period of his correspondence with Mr. Woodfall under the signature of Junius, “ whether you know or suspect who I am.” “ You must not write to me again,” he observes in another letter, “ but be assured I will never desert you.” “ Upon no account, nor for any reason whatever are you to write to me until I give you notice.” “ Change to the Somerset Coffee-house, and let no mortal know the alteration. I am persuaded you are too honest a man to contribute in any way to my destruction. Act honourably by me, and at a proper time you shall know me.”

‘ The Somerset Coffee-house formed only one of a great variety of places, at which answers and other parcels from the printer of the Public Advertiser were ordered to be left. No plan indeed could be better devised for secrecy than that by which this correspondence was maintained. A common name, such as was by no means likely to excite any peculiar attention, was first chosen by Junius, and a common place of deposit indicated : — the parcels from Junius himself were sent direct to the printing-office, and whenever a parcel or letter in return was waiting for him, it was announced in the notices to correspondents by such signals as “ N. E. C.” — “ A Letter.” — “ Vindex shall be considered.” — “ C. in the usual place,” — “ An old Correspondent shall be attended to,” the introductory C. being a little varied from that commonly used ; or by a line of Latin poetry. “ Don’t always use,” says our author, “ the same signal : any absurd Latin verse will answer the purpose.” And when the answer implied a mere negative or affirmative, it was communicated in the newspaper by a simple *yes* or *no*. The names of address more commonly assumed were Mr. William Middleton, or Mr. John Fretly, and the more common

common places of address were the bar of the Somerset Coffee-house, as stated above, of the New Exchange, or Munday's in Maiden Lane, the waiters of which were occasionally feed for their punctuality. But these too were varied for other names and places of abode as circumstances might dictate.

' By what conveyance Junius obtained his letters and parcels from the places at which they were left for him is not very clearly ascertained. In his Private Letter of January 18th, 1772, he observes, " the gentleman who transacts the conveyancing part of our correspondence tells me there was much difficulty last night."—He sometimes, as we learn from his own testimony, employed a common chairman as his messenger, and perhaps this, after all, was the method most usually resorted to.'

The miscellaneous letters of Junius form so large a proportion of the new matter in this edition, as to call for some explanation of their contents. They began in April 1767; and the first topic of discussion regards a question of much public interest in those days, we mean the claim of the crown to a right of transferring the Duke of Portland's estate of Inglewood to Sir James Lowther, son-in-law of the favourite Lord Bute. The plea was that these lands had not been duly specified in the royal grant to the family of Portland, and that, though possessed by that family nearly seventy years, the right of property remained in the crown.—The growing disputes with our American colonies formed the subject of many succeeding letters.—The dismissal of Sir Jeffrey Amherst from the governorship of Virginia was a farther object of discussion, and afforded to Junius (what he was always eager to embrace) a favourable opportunity for assailing ministers. After this came, in the beginning of 1769, the select compositions given to the public under the signature of Junius solely; and from that time forwards the subordinate contributions of this indefatigable combatant were devoted to the vindication and support of his more polished compositions.

To return to the editor of the present work. The preliminary essay, as it is termed, comprehends almost the whole of his original observations; and though deficient in point of arrangement and unnecessarily expanded by quotations, it contains no small stock of curious remarks. We extract from it, as a concluding specimen, the summary of the characteristics of Junius; leaving it to future inquirers to apply the enumeration in their researches after this mysterious antagonist of ministerial sway:

' From the observations contained in this essay it should seem to follow unquestionably that the author of the letters of Junius was an Englishman of highly cultivated education, deeply versed in the language, the laws, the constitution and history of his native country; that

that he was a man of easy if not of affluent circumstances, of unsullied honour and generosity, who had it equally in his heart and in his power to contribute to the necessities of other persons, and especially of those who were exposed to troubles of any kind on his own account: that he was in habits of confidential intercourse, if not with different members of the cabinet, with politicians who were most intimately familiar with the court, and entrusted with all its secrets; that he had attained an age which would allow him, without vanity, to boast of an ample knowledge and experience of the world: that during the years 1767, 1768, 1769, 1770, 1771, and part of 1772, he resided almost constantly in London or its vicinity, devoting a very large portion of his time to political concerns, and publishing his political lucubrations, under different signatures, in the *Public Advertiser*; that in his natural temper, he was quick, irritable, and impetuous; subject to political prejudices and strong personal animosities; but possessed of a high independent spirit; honestly attached to the principles of the constitution, and fearless and indefatigable in maintaining them; that he was strict in his moral conduct, and in his attention to public decorum; an avowed member of the established church, and, though acquainted with English judicature, not a lawyer by profession.

‘What other characteristics he may have possessed we know not; but these are sufficient; and the claimant who cannot produce them conjointly is in vain brought forwards as the author of the *Letters of Junius*.’

We shall shortly have occasion to notice the recent attempts to ascribe the letters of Junius to Dr. Wilmot, to Dr. Francis and his son the present Sir Philip, again to Mr. Burke, and some others. Have our readers heard of the risible contempt which seems to have been purposely thrown on the conjectures exercised on this subject, by assigning these compositions to the farcical comedian, Mr. Suett?

ART. IV. *A Journal of the Campaign in Portugal and Spain*, containing Remarks on the Inhabitants, Customs, Trade, and Cultivation, of those Countries, from the Year 1809 to 1812. By the late Major-General Henry Mackinnon. 8vo. pp. 103. 6s. 6d. Boards, Longman and Co. 1812.

IT is a point admitted among critics, that the lively interest excited in every country by the dialogues of Plato and Xenophon should be, in a great measure, ascribed to the circumstance of their being copies of real conversations; and that all the richness of the imagination of the former, and all the suavity of the latter, would have been unequal to the composition of works of such attraction, had the writers attempted to found them exclusively on the suggestions of fancy. A similar remark was made by Dr. Johnson, on the composition of a literary essay of a much humbler character. After having read
his

his friend Boswell's account of Corsica, he thus wrote to him : " Your history, my dear Sir, is like other histories, but your journal is in a very high degree curious and delightful. There is between the history and the journal that difference which there will always be found between notions borrowed from without, and notions generated within. Your history was copied from books ; your journal rose out of your own experience and observation." A character of a similar kind may be ascribed to the journal of the late General Mackinnon, which has been recently committed to the press by the friends of that officer. Its length is not considerable, and the style is frequently hasty and unpolished, as the writer appears to have had no thoughts of coming before the bar of the public : but it deserves a larger share of attention than works of much greater parade, because the General introduces nothing that did not fall under his personal knowledge. It begins in April 1809, and is continued without much interruption during eighteen months ; after which a journey to England having suspended the writer's observations, we have only a short notice of the proceedings of the corps under his command in the winter of 1811. We have put together his detached remarks on several topics of interest, and have little doubt that they will be found to convey much clearer impressions than the more elaborate narratives of those who, with superior pretensions as to composition, have not been equally scrupulous in confining their reports to the scenes of which they were spectators.

The first marches of General (at that time Colonel) Mackinnon were with the Guards (to the 2d regiment of which he belonged) from Lisbon to the northern part of Portugal. Here he had an opportunity of seeing the best cultivated portion of this otherwise neglected kingdom :

‘ *May 2. 1809.*—Condusea is placed in an enchanting valley, near the ruins of the ancient Coimbrica, which are still very perfect. From hence a three hours' march carried us to Coimbra. The intermediate country presents all the undulations of Wales ; the greatest fertility ; the vineyards crown the summits of the hills, and are interspersed with olives, oranges, apricots, and almost every variety of fruit trees ; and to add to the enchantment, you have occasionally the oak and pine, and rills of limpid water—nothing is wanted to make the banks of the Mondego, one of the most desirable spots in nature. You have a magnificent view of the city on the road before your arrival, which commands a continued aspect of the river above and below the town for many miles. The situation of the town is the happiest I ever recollect seeing. The university contains a library, finely built, and a considerable collection of books. The situation of the observatory is very good, and in addition to the climate, must unite every advantage for observation. The university, which is the only one in Portugal,

Portugal, contains seven chairs of droit canonique, ten of droit civilo, seven of medicine, one of mathematics, and one of music: it has 18 colleges, but the students reside in the town; the buildings therefore are allotted to the different professions and classes.'—

'*May 15.*—March to Braga, 6 hours; country still inclosed, and equally picturesque and beautiful, more like England would be, had it vines, olives, and oranges. Braga is a considerable town. I am lodged with a grocer, who has given me a good dinner, coffee, and a good reception. The French army, which we are now pursuing, is two leagues off, on the road to Chaves.

'*May 16.*—Pursue the French for 12 hours; come up with them at Salamonde, in the mountains, on the road to Chaves—drive them out of the town, which they had destroyed. I will here pay a tribute to Sir Arthur: I was near him, by his orders, when the attack was about to commence; and I can confidently say, that he gave his orders for the arrangements preceding the attack, in the coolest and most determinised manner. If I had never seen him but at that moment, I could decide upon his being a man of a great mind.'

'*May 17.*—Continue our pursuit to Freoscas, near Montalegre, 14 hours. The rear-guard was stationed this night two leagues to the northward of Montalegre, in Spain. Here we hand the enemy over to Gen. Beresford; as they have destroyed the whole of their artillery, the Portuguese may be able to finish the business—we are called elsewhere.—There is a bridge and fall near Reuvannes, equal to any thing in Switzerland for beauty: upon the whole, the mountain scenery is not surpassed in any part of the world; the industrious inhabitants have cultivated every spot where soil is to be found. The mountains, to a certain height, are covered with wild chesnut: these and maize constitute the food of the inhabitants, who are a fine race of people, at least the men; we saw little of the women.'

A very different picture is exhibited by General Mackinnon's journal, when he was stationed in the central part of Portugal. On one occasion he marched fifteen miles without passing more than a single habitation; and even where the population was considerable, the deficient industry of the inhabitants formed an unpleasant contrast with the habits of the quarter which he had recently visited:

'*June 11. 1809.*—March this day at five o'clock; in 6 hours get to Punhete. The first part of the road leads through a beautiful and fertile vale: pass hills covered with myrtles, gumcestus, wild lavender, and other odoriferous plants, which embalm the air to an inconceivable degree. On one of the hills we have a fine view of the Tagus from Abrantes to Santarem, the distance of 40 miles. At Punhete we pass the Zezere on a bridge of boats. The situation of Punhete is one of the happiest in nature: it is placed at the conflux of the Tagus and Zezere, both of which rivers are navigable. The navigation of the Tagus, it must be observed, in common with most other rivers in Portugal, is frequently interrupted in summer; and as the soil is sandy, the sand-banks, of which there are great numbers, are
apt

apt to shift, to the detriment of navigation.' — 'The want of cleanliness in the towns of Portugal has justly been complained of: I need only say, that the streets are universally used for every purpose. Oporto, and the towns to the north, are an exception; the inhabitants of those countries have a decided advantage over their brethren of the south.'—

'The distance between Abrantes and the Spanish frontier is about 100 miles, during which space you have to cross 6 rivers without bridges, which are only fordable in dry weather. The population of this extensive tract cannot exceed 4000 souls, including Castle Branco; and I may say that we passed over 5 miles of cultivation, the remainder left to the wide range of wolves, hawks, and eagles! — The eye was tired in viewing so much of neglected nature, and makes one recollect that a long and dark night covers the human race, giving to few the brilliance of day. The population of Portugal is immense, *compared to its cultivation*. I have now travelled 700 miles in this country, and have had some opportunity of calculating the quantity of land submitted to the industry of its inhabitants: the proportion is inconceivably small, and in general only extends round its towns and villages in proportion to their magnitude. The inhabitants live on very little; bread, oil, onions, and fruit in small quantities, and water, of which they drink abundantly, supply their wants: this accounts for their numbers. One third of the number of Britons would starve on such slender means of support.' — 'The Alentejo is rendered almost uninhabitable and barren, owing to the deficiency of water and to the badness of its quality; the beds of the river being so unequal as to size and depth, that in many places you see large pools of water, and over the same river, at other places, you can pass without the inconvenience of wetting yourself: the Guadiana, for instance, near Badajoz and Merida, is 300 yards broad, in other places it is not much more than a tenth part without much current: consequently, in the broadest parts the water, or a great part of it, must be in a state of stagnation.'

In adverting to former accounts of Portugal, we have the satisfaction of finding a decided preference given (p. 60, 61.) to our countryman Murphy over General Dumouriez. The work of the latter is emphatically said to be 'full of misrepresentations,' while that of Mr. Murphy is pronounced to be accurate with regard to all that came under his personal observation. This favourable testimony applies to his description of manners and customs; the historical part of his book being nothing but a translation from the Portuguese.—On the subject of Portuguese manners, General Mackinnon makes a pointed distinction between the simplicity of the country and the vices of the metropolis. An Englishman will judge very erroneously of other states, if he imagines that the facility of travelling communications, and the rapidity of disseminating the habits of the capital, are in any degree similar to those which he sees at home. In France, and still more in the backward regions

of the continent, a difference of several ages appears in the comparative progress of the metropolis and the provinces :

‘ The country houses (called quintas) of the gentry, of which there are but few at a distance from Lisbon, are generally furnished in the worst style ; what few pictures they have, which are always on religious subjects, are painted in a style infinitely inferior to the signs of our large towns ; their tables and chairs are of common deal, or the first wood that falls under their hands ; the chairs are usually backed and seated with leather, and ornamented with large brass nails, such as you sometimes see in England, of the manufactory in the reign of Henry V.’ — ‘ I must add, that at a distance from the capital, I know not any nation where there appears to be more purity of morals than in Portugal. In many of the houses of the principal nobility the families constantly reside in the country. — They have a peculiar virtue, from the kindness with which they treat servants ; many of whom, attached to the same family from one generation to another, acquire, by their savings, small properties, which in time enables them to rise and become independent. The occupation of a servant is here by no means so degrading as in England, and most other parts of Europe.’ —

‘ The general character of the Portuguese is sadly disfigured by foreign writers of travels ; and I think I can account for it, by their residence in Lisbon alone. From the great intercourse with foreigners in this large city, and the very great proportion of Brazilians, the real Portuguese character is quite different in the capital and its provinces. — When the inhabitants of Portugal are described by travellers, you have therefore little more than the account of these foreigners corrupted by trade, wealth, misery, and the vices of a court ; that they are prone to murder, and every species of crime. One would naturally be led to suppose, that the manners of the capital would influence the provinces ; particularly of this kingdom, whose chief city is greater in proportion to the extent of the country, than any other capital in Europe : but this is not the cause : for the badness of the roads, and of accommodation, renders the intercourse very difficult, and very few of the provincial families ever leave their homes. When they travel they are either carried in sedan chairs, with two mules for their chairmen, or they ride on mules. On roads where a carriage is seen, they are obliged to carry with them their bedding of every sort, and provisions, with cooking utensils, as their towns only afford the bare walls. Five leagues is reckoned a good day's journey. The gentry lead, at their homes, a most harmless and inoffensive life ; they have few or no luxuries, and are very willing that strangers should partake of their fare. — The greatest crime you ever hear committed, is pilfering — robberies and murders are scarcely known ; and as to assassinations, I never heard of one in the country. — The people are certainly not industrious, but that may be attributed to a bad government, where there is little security to property, and no encouragement to industry. — They are perfectly unacquainted with any agricultural improvement, such as draining, or giving their lands a proper succession of crops.’

Yet

Yet the district which is thus backward has a climate incomparably superior to that of England; and in marching in the month of January, (p. 45.) the verdant appearance of the ground reminded our troops of an union of spring and autumn in their mother-country. In many places, the old leaves continued on the vines and oaks, while the fields and hedges exhibited a rising vegetation. Indeed, the weather and the look of surrounding nature were such as to make the men almost forget the fatigues of service. 'Much,' says General M. (p. 7-), 'might be done in this country if they once got rid of their monks and government, both of which we are come to support.' This expression is the more remarkable, because our officers felt grateful, as far as personal attention was concerned, to the monks; who had always the will, and frequently the power, to contribute to their comforts:

'I cannot help giving some details of the convent of Santa Cruz in Coimbra: it is the second in point of wealth in the kingdom, Alcobaca being the richest. The rents of the convent are estimated at 80,000 crusadas, equal to £12,000 at 3s. the crusada; in this account is not reckoned gardens, quintas, vineyards for their own use, and many other advantages. They possess one estate near Figueras, which may contain 12 square miles of good ground; and have the tithes of twelve parishes. The monks seem to me to lead a life of the greatest indolence, having nothing to do but to pray, eat, drink, and sleep. They get up at five in the morning, dine at half-past eleven, go to bed at half-past twelve, get up at half-past two, and go to bed again at half-past ten. They are only allowed to go to a country-seat thirty days in the year, and on particular occasions to pay visits in the town; but they must go in their carriage, as they are not permitted to walk the streets. If a monk has a sister, he is only allowed to see her once in the year. This convent is of the order of St. Augustine; the monks are called canons regular; there ought to be eighty monks agreeable to the institution, but they have only fifty: they have forty servants in the convent, besides out-of-door servants, and four carriages for the use of the monks: they are occupied on ordinary occasions three hours of the day in prayers, the rest of the time is their own.'

In Portugal, as in other states, the prospect of a convent is the sure sign of a fertile neighbourhood. Each of these establishments has a library attached to it, and the most valuable collection of books in that kingdom is in the convent appended to the magnificent palace of Mafra. A point of greater interest to many of our countrymen in Portugal was the quality of the wine; in which respect, also, General Mackinnon gives reason to hope that great future improvements may take place:

'The wine in some parts of Portugal, from the negligence with which it is made, and the still greater negligence in the care of it, is
very

very apt to become sour : wine of this sort being occasionally exported to England, to the great loss of the merchant, makes him avoid experiment. This, added to a natural want of enterprise, is the cause of our not knowing many of the wines of this country, which would be much esteemed in England. I had always an idea, that the wines of Portugal were rough and coarse : this certainly is the case with those sent to England. Since I have been here, on the contrary, I have found many in point of delicacy equal to the best French wines ; and with care, I am convinced, they would equal them in every respect.'

A part of the time comprehended in this journal was passed in the Spanish territory. It will be in the recollection of our readers that, after having expelled Soult from the north of Portugal, Lord Wellington ventured, on assurances of effectual support from the Spaniards, to march in the direction of Madrid, with the hope of driving the French out of the heart of the Peninsula :

' *July 5*: 1809. — Seven hours' march to Zarza la Mayor, first town in Spain. The two countries are separated by the river Elga. — The country seems to bear a wild appearance all the way to the Tagus. The desert, which I have before described, continues to the river. The Spanish bank produces abundance of corn, although the soil does not differ. It must have been the policy of Portugal to encourage this waste, to give strength to this part of their frontier, which is considered the most vulnerable part of the kingdom. I allude to the Tagus, which is only 2 leagues from hence, and is connected with it in a military point of view.' —

' *July 7*. — March 7 hours, and hut for the night in a very extensive forest of green oak and cork, near the little village of Moratego ; next day march in 5 hours to Coria, the see of a bishop. — The following day, 8th, we keep the river in sight, and ford it near Galisteo : we hut on the banks of the river. — At Galisteo we saw a prodigious number of sheep travelling northward, perhaps 10,000, guarded by fine dogs, something like our Newfoundland, but larger ; they usually pass through this place in April, but have been deterred by the neighbourhood of the French. Continue in the same valley till we get to Placencia on the 10th, after 8 hours' march. Here we get to the mountains. We have already passed through two fine extensive vallies ; the one in which Moratego is situated, is left to nature ; the other, watered in its whole extent by the Alagon, is partly cultivated, partly left to nature. I have seen nothing like a hedge or ditch to separate the lands since my entrance into Spain ; and nothing like farmers' houses. All the population resort to the towns, where they bring their corn : there are neither sheds, barns, or any thing but the growing corn out of the towns. This must create great inconvenience : agriculture can never flourish with such a system ; the horses that plough, and the labourers that reap, must be exhausted before they arrive at their ground. Placencia is a town agreeably situated on the banks of the Alagon, which river is beautifully

tifully limpid: the town is on an eminence, at the beginning of a range of mountains, which branch off towards Segovia, and are at this moment in many places crowned with snow. — The revenues of the bishop exceed 30,000*l.* a-year. The train of clergy belonging to this church is immense; I do not reckon in their ecclesiastical guide less than forty priests attached to it. The service seems to be administered with much more dignity and decorum than in Portugal. The houses of the gentry are large and ill furnished, such as in England would not be considered habitable. I except the bishop's palace.'—

'*July 19.*— Having marched 13 hours, we got to Oropesa. We are deposited in an olive grove for this night, and the following day; but as we are not allowed to cut the olive trees, our men remain exposed to the scorching sun. The greatest part of Oropesa is occupied by the palace of the Duke of Alva, whose vast possessions extend over a great proportion of this part of Spain. — At Oropesa we form our junction with Cuesta's army; they file by us on the 21st, and are said to be composed of the following numbers, under Cuesta's immediate command: in this army, 30,000 infantry and 6,000 cavalry; and under Venegas, on the right of us, about 20,000; this is much under the general rate, and I believe to be their effective force. Our army consists of upwards of 22,500 effective, 2,500 of which are cavalry. The whole of this united army does not fall much short of 80,000 men. With this force the French are to be expelled the Peninsula. Cuesta's character does not stand high as a General; nor is his army well officered. I see no defect in the composition of his troops, and the cavalry are certainly better mounted than the French.'—

'Truxillo and Merida, which are large towns, are in themselves devoid of interest. The former was the birth-place of Pizarro; the Marquis de la Conquesta, in whose house I slept, is his descendant, and resides in the house Pizarro was born in. — At Merida there are the remains of some Roman antiquities, a very fine arch, an amphitheatre, and a temple; but as the stone decomposes, they are in a very degraded state. The Moorish citadel, which is very large, is entirely built of Roman materials. The bridge over the Guadiana is remarkable for having 56 arches; part of it is evidently Roman. This river, you would suppose, could not require such a bridge, for at this moment it does not carry more water than the Thames at Staines; but in winter the rivers in the Peninsula increase to a prodigious size. The next town that comes under notice is Badajoz; and it bears infinitely more the appearance of a capital than any of the towns I have seen in Spain. — Badajoz is remarkable for producing a newspaper: I went to the house where it was published, and saw the editor, expecting he would give me some political information; but I found he knew as little as the rest of his countrymen.' — 'The town of Badajoz is considerable, not containing less than 12,000 souls: it is situated on the Guadiana, over which there is a fine bridge of 26 arches. The town is fortified, but its fortifications are commanded, and from one place the rampart is seen in reverse.'

The

The antipathy of the Spaniards to the French exists with a degree of violence of which few persons in England have an adequate conception. Had Bonaparte been thoroughly aware of it, he might have saved himself the trouble of attempting the conquest of a people who cannot for many ages, nor perhaps at any time, be incorporated with the French. Favourable as the Spanish feelings are to the maintenance of their independence, they are sometimes productive of conduct towards the unfortunate Frenchmen in their power, at which humanity revolts. In the polished city of Valencia, several French merchants were murdered, on Bonaparte's invasion, in open day; and the few who escaped owed their safety to the interpidity of the British consul. We have understood from our officers that, on following a track along which French prisoners had been conducted by Spanish escorts, it was not unfrequent to find by the road-side the bodies of those of the miserable prisoners who, being prevented by lameness from keeping up with the column, or tempted by thirst to turn aside from it, had been summarily shot by their unmerciful guides. These accounts we are sorry to find confirmed by General Mackinnon:

‘ I went from Almeida to the fort of the Conceção, which is about six miles from hence, in the kingdom of Leon; it is a regular quadrangle, beautifully constructed. The place was garrisoned by a company of Spaniards, who were entrusted with the charge of some French prisoners, upon whom they were exercising great inhumanity. Governor Cox and myself attempted to prevail on them to allow these unfortunate men some exercise during the day; but the Captain said, it was of no consequence whether they lived or died. Upon all occasions, I have observed the Spaniards treat the French with the greatest inhumanity; and if not prevented, would put those to death who fell into their hands.’

If to this disposition be added that national pride which rejects instruction from foreigners, our countrymen will have reason to be thankful when this obstinate contest shall draw to a close. The Portuguese, at least those of the north, are very unlike their Castilian neighbours, being extremely tractable, patient, and sober.—While in the neighbourhood of Almeida, General M. had an opportunity of remarking that transparency of air which has so forcibly struck our countrymen in their foreign travels, particularly in Greece and Asia Minor:

‘ I have heard it remarked by Humboldt, I think, that the air in parts of South America is so very transparent, that you can distinguish the white garment of a man at (I think) 15 miles’ distance; I have made the same remark in this country; I could, from the top of a mountain, distinguish, with the naked eye, a white house

where I happened to lodge at Castello Roderigo, and the distance could not be less than 36 miles in a direct line: this would not be credited by a person only acquainted with the English atmosphere, where in the finest day, with some difficulty, you discern St. Paul's from the hill between Egham and Englefield-Green. — August 17th I again visited my hill, and to corroborate what I have before said, I could distinctly see the French batteries firing upon Almeida and the garrison returning the fire; the sound was not heard. The distance from Almeida is not less than 32 miles, in a direct line.*

In the early part of the revolutionary war, the French soldiers were remarkable for their regular and inoffensive habits. Pichegru was a commander of exemplary conduct; and, which was much more to the point, the levies were taken from a class too young and too remote from great cities to be contaminated with disorderly propensities. On the conquest of Holland, accordingly, the deportment of the French soldiers was found altogether different from the previous rumours of their violence and rapacity. That the character of acquiescent and inoffensive manners continues to belong to the new levies can scarcely be doubted: but the disposition of those who have been long in service is very different; and, unhappily, various occasions have occurred, on which the violence of mutual exasperation has been productive of excesses altogether unworthy of civilized nations. In Portugal, the resistance (or rather the aversion) of the people to the French was the cause, or the pretext, of shameful outrages. In Soult's retreat, towns and villages were completely plundered; and the system of destruction comprized even objects, such as household furniture, which could afford no advantage to a depredator. In the city of Oporto, the plundering is said to have lasted during three days, and to have cost the lives of several hundred inhabitants. The remembrance of these horrors awakened the most dismal apprehensions at the time of the second invasion of Portugal by Massena in the autumn of 1810:

* Never did any unfortunate country feel, with greater severity, the miseries of war than this country, through which the English and Portuguese armies are slowly retreating, and are pursued by the still more destructive armies of France. All the attention and discipline of the best regulated troops, can never prevent the irregularities of straggling soldiers, followers of the army, and men, particularly those employed in the transport of stores and provisions.

September 7. — I went this day to Aldea das Dias, a village on the other side of the Alva, situated in a kind of basin, about 500 feet above the river, in the midst of gardens and vineyards. — The village was filled by emigrant families, who at first did not know whether we were friends or enemies; but when they found that we were some of their good allies, they immediately began a volley of abuse against

against the French, and offered us water-melons, and other fruits, for which we could get them to take nothing in return. The groupes consisted chiefly of women and children; they hope that we should retain the country: and the fear of falling into the hands of the French, was strongly marked in every thing they said to us. To see these poor people crowded together, not knowing what is to be their fate, deprived of the comforts their homes afford, and not knowing whether those homes have been allowed to exist by the French soldiery, made this a melancholy interview; and which, however often one may have occasion to see repeated, must always bring melancholy reflections to the mind. Such is the fate of a soldier, whenever he is employed on active service; the misery of the human race, in one shape or other, is what he has always to contemplate.'

Our own armies, brave and generous as are their component members, have not yet acquired the art of making a retreat without committing great waste and disorder. Lord Wellington's address to his troops, on occasion of the retreat from Burgos, contains but too strong evidence of the existence of such irregularities; and the testimony of General Mackinnon is explicit with regard to the manner in which they occur:

'When a part of the army arrives at a cantonment, immediately horses, mules, and asses are turned loose into the inclosures. This may be avoided by a well-organized corps; but it generally happens, and the mischief is often irreparable, before the unfortunate inhabitants have had time to make their representations, supposing them not to have fled. It is, however, far worse when the commissariat mules approach; then nothing is respected; and as they often keep out of the reach of officers of rank, they are allowed to create havoc with impunity. When a dismal story reaches the ear of a superior officer, before he can put a stop to destruction, the swarm of mules are committing a repetition of outrage in another devoted spot. The extent of mischief may be measured by the number of brigade mules: in the third division only they amount to six hundred. Another fatal instrument of destruction are small detachments, going from, and coming to join the army, principally consisting of the sick: these parties are left to the command of subaltern officers; and too often, I am sorry to say, they neglect their duty, often leaving their parties to march by themselves, and when arrived at the end of their day's march, giving no directions to enforce regularity. This is felt like a blight along the whole line of communication, from Lisbon to the army. Lord Wellington's repeated orders to enforce regularity, although they may have checked, have not cured the evil. When a soldier is sick or wounded, he fancies himself above law, but the unfortunate inhabitant finds that he has still force left to plunder, and commit devastation. Want of subordination and proper regulations in an army, has a stronger tendency to cause its own destruction, than can be supposed by a common observer; nor have I ever met with any military author, that has sufficiently discussed this part of the subject. If the troops in a country, which has long been the

seat of war, whose resources are exhausted, whose magistrates are fled, or whose power is become despicable — if in such a country, parties to supply the soldiers' wants are not properly organized, and invariably under the orders of officers, the doors, windows, floors, and ultimately the roofs of houses, will be burnt for fuel, the green fields will be consumed for forage, and the soldiers, particularly those attending officers, will have an excuse for going to a distance, and laying their hands upon every thing without distinction. What will be the consequence? The resources of months will be consumed in a few days; the soldiers, in the ruins of those very houses which they themselves have rendered uninhabitable, will contract diseases, which will cause the death of many, and disable many more; the forage having been wantonly consumed, those animals destined to carry provisions or baggage will be starved; and the army, ultimately, from disease occasioned by privations, be obliged to abandon its object, and to retire into a new country, which will in its turn have to suffer. Had the French adopted sufficient precautions, Massena would not have been obliged to retire at so early a period from our lines before Lisbon. But in regard to interior economy, however imperfect we may be, yet in this we far excel our enemy.³

We shall next see the effect of such inconsiderate waste on the comfort of the soldier:

'October 19. 1810. — This day I learn that Trant has taken 5,000 French at Coimbra, principally sick; and that Mortier has been obliged to abandon his intention of joining Massena, on account of insurrections in Andalusia. Desertions are very frequent; this day 60. Massena's situation seems to be more critical every hour. All the deserters and prisoners, whom I have spoken to, universally declare that they get no bread: meat so far they have received, but this supply cannot last, unless they open a communication with their rear, or across the Tagus, which latter they are supposed to be attempting; probably at Santarem, or Salvaterra: when their bridge is made I hope we may be fortunate enough to destroy it — the river is rapid and will favour any operation of that kind. It would appear, from the intercepted letters from Berthier to Massena, that the latter had been almost forced into his present situation, Buonaparte seeming to have an equal contempt for our numbers and the quality of the troops with whom we are acting: this account states the army that was to enter Portugal, to consist of 60,000 men, and 6,000 cavalry to keep up his communication with the rear.'

Another example of the same kind was unfortunately afforded by the sufferings of our own soldiers, on the hasty retreat from Talavera in August 1809:

'After the battle of Talavera, which was fought on the evening of the 27th, and the whole of the 28th of July, (1809) it is natural to suppose that the wounded should require other shelter than the olive trees allotted to the army. I was ordered by the Commander in Chief, the last day of the month, to take the command in the

town, and make arrangements with the assistance of Dr. F***, Inspector of Hospitals. The 1st of August I went into the town, and took up my quarters with Lord M'Duff, General Whittingham, who was wounded, and Col. Roach, officers serving with the Spanish army. The sick were principally placed in the large convents of the town, some in deserted houses. The confusion and scenes of death can scarcely be described: many men till this day never having had their wounds dressed. — At eleven o'clock on the 3d, I waited on General Cuesta, and saw General O'Donoghoe, who received me in a manner that I could easily perceive something extraordinary had happened. He told me that he was at that moment occupied on business of the greatest importance, which was not communicated to me till one o'clock; and Gen. Cuesta then informed me that Soult, with 35,000 men, was at Placencia, and Victor only six leagues in Cuesta's front: this had been discovered by a monk, the bearer of a letter from King Joseph to Soult, who at that moment was in the room: he should retire at dusk with his army, and I had better get off with the hospital before that time. My instructions ordered me, in contemplation of such an event, to go to Merida, by Ponte de Archibispo. — With difficulty I procured seven waggons from Gen. Cuesta, to carry off a few wounded men and officers; and at five o'clock the rear-guard left the town. I left it myself at eight, passing through some thousand Spaniards who were making off. The first night we got to Calera, which town had been completely destroyed by the French. Next day at Ponte de Archibispo, where I purposed passing the night, we were overtaken by the British army. I was ordered by the Adjutant-General to proceed with my party to Valdecasa that night; but finding the bridge over the Tagus occupied by our retreating army and their baggage, it was dark before I could get in motion. — The distance from Talavera to Elvas is 184 miles; over which space I have had to conduct this disorderly crew, without magazines. In many places the magistrates shewing evident marks of a hostile inclination, and no where inclined to serve us — the people of the country have every where treated the unfortunate men, who have sacrificed themselves to save Spain, with inhumanity and neglect — and I was often obliged to use violent means to prevent the men from starving. Such has been our reception in Spain!

General Mackinnon was not long destined to share the fatigues and the honour of a military life. Having been appointed to command a brigade in the siege of Ciudad Rodrigo in January 1812, he fell in taking a lead in the gallant assault which delivered that fortress into our hands. After having secured the possession of the breach, he marched with the 74th regiment to a parapet on the left; and, on ascending it to conduct his troops to victory, he was unhappily destroyed by the sudden explosion of an enemy's magazine near the breach. He was supposed by his soldiers, during the whole of the night, to be living; and it was not till next morning that his

body was discovered, wounded, and scorched on the back of the head. It was removed to Espeja, and buried by the officers of the Coldstream Guards with military honours, and with the highest marks of attachment to a lamented friend.

ART. V. *Transactions of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, Vols. XXVIII. and XXIX.*

[Article concluded from page 251.]

MECHANICS, *continued.*

NEWSPAPERS afford many accounts of accidents from fire-arms, which are attributed to carelessness in the bearer, but which would not have happened if safety in the use of them had been consulted in their construction. Sportsmen in the field, and even military men, are sometimes wounded by the unexpected explosion of their own pieces. To remedy these evils, Mr. Ezekiel Baker (No. 24. Whitechapel-road,) has occupied himself in contriving *A Method of rendering Fire-Arms more safe to the Bearer, and more effectual in Use.* The first object is accomplished by a lock which bolts itself on going into half-cock; and by having the hammer of the lock so raised towards the cock that the top cannot catch the holster when putting in the pistol. The second object is obtained by a touch-hole so made that the piece primes itself, by a fence which carries the fire into the pan, and by a swivelled rammer, which cannot be lost. Owing to the effect of wind and motion in dissipating the powder, our cavalry will find the advantage of pistols with a large touch-hole, which prime themselves.

Workers in metal may be thankful to Mr. J. D. Ross, (Prince's-street, Soho,) for his *Invention of a Machine for separating Iron Filings from their mixture with other Metals.* The usual mode, by the use of a single magnet, was tedious; and Mr. Ross's 'machine, by employing several magnets at once, must expedite the process.

The next communication is humane in its object. As workmen and servants are liable to the most serious accidents in repairing and cleaning the outside of windows in lofty houses, Mr. G. Marshall (No. 15. Cecil-court, St. Martin's-lane,) has presented a plan for *constructing Sash Windows, so as to be cleaned or repaired without the Necessity of any Persons going on the Outside of the House.* As we have passed the streets of the metropolis we have often seen a painter or glazier suspended on the outside of a third or fourth story-window, like the man gathering samphire half-way down Dover-cliff, as described

by Shakspeare, and have trembled for him in his perilous situation. Affected by the death of a man who was precipitated from a board on which he stood while he was cleaning the outside of a window, and was impaled on the iron spikes surrounding the area below, Mr. M. was humanely induced to invent a sash-frame, which in appearance resembles those in common use, but with which, by making the fillets of the sash which enter the grooves separate from the sash-frame, and by fastening these fillets with pivots about the middle of the sash, it is possible to get at the outside of the sash by moving it on its pivots inwards into the room. The contrivance is simple : but the sash will be liable to rattle, and to admit a beating rain.

Mr. Wm. Moulton, (No. 37. Bedford-square,) having noticed the defects in the use of common filtering-stones, has suggested an easy and more effectual *Method of applying these Stones for the Purification of Water.*

Shaft-horses often fall in the streets under a cart heavily laden, and are with difficulty extricated from their painful situation. Mr. Benjamin Smith (No. 11. Turnham-place, Curtain-road, Shoreditch,) therefore describes *A Method of raising a loaded Cart when the Horse in the Shafts has fallen.* A chain is employed, which passes from the fore-part of the cart over strong uprights at the back, and which acts as a lever ; and the two fore-horses being unhooked and fastened to the end of the chain, by their drawing the load is raised, and the fallen horse is enabled to recover his feet.

At some length, Mr. John Taylor (of Holwell, near Tavistock,) describes *his Method of ventilating Mines or Hospitals, by extracting the foul Air from them.* Without the plate, it would be impossible to give an accurate idea of Mr. T.'s exhausting engine : but it is proper to observe that experience has ascertained its utility, that it is not likely to get out of repair, and that it merits attention in all cases in which labour is interrupted or health injured by foul or deleterious air.

A Compensation-Pendulum for a Clock, made of steel and zinc, has been presented to the Society by Mr. Adam Reid, of Green's End, Woolwich. This pendulum is simple in its construction, cheap, and, preserving an uniform length, vibrates equably.

Connected with Horology is an invention of great simplicity and cheapness, by Mr. G. Spark, (of Elgin, Murrayshire, Scotland,) who has suggested *A Method of ascertaining the Hour in the Night, by an Apparatus connected with a common Watch.* Mr. S.'s *Noctuary* is not liable to be out of order ; and the marks which designate the hours being made to project on the scale, the knowledge required is obtained by feeling.

We shall leave it to surgeons to report from experience on the merit of *Elastic Trusses for Ruptures*, by Mr. J. Whitford, surgeon's instrument maker, St. Bartholomew's Hospital; on *Crutches with Springs*, by Mr. G. Prisley, No. 3. Church-street, Soho; and on the *Variety of Implements*, invented by Mr. John Morison, No. 391. Strand, *for the Use of Persons who have had the Misfortune to lose their Hands*.

While fighting is in fashion, every improvement in the engines of destruction will be considered as important, because the sooner an enemy who is attempting to knock out *our* brains has *his* brains knocked out, the better: how grateful, then, must our navy feel to Capt. T. M. Bagnold, of the Royal Marines, (High Row, Knight's-bridge,) for his *Invention of a Gun and Carriage, to clear the Tops of the Enemy's Ships from Marksmen in close Action*. A plate representing the Gun and Carriage is subjoined, and the mode of firing is explained.

Our attention is drawn to an object of a different kind by Mr. Wm. Brunton, (of Butterley Iron Works, Derbysire,) who has invented *An Improved Pump, for raising the Water, while Wells are sinking or making*. The construction and advantages of this improved pump are fully detailed: but the account is too long for extraction, and cannot be abridged.

Mr. John Hodgson, of Charles-street, St. James's-square, has stated a *Method of correcting the Variations of the Mariner's Compass, and of the Compass used with the Theodolite*. He thus explains his improvement:

‘ The frequent recurrence to the variation of the compass, which is necessary in the use of the Theodolite, is always attended with trouble, and not unfrequently productive of error.

‘ It appears to me, that by a very simple expedient, these inconveniences may in a great measure be removed. To the magnetic needle of the instrument, let one of brass be affixed moveable upon the center of the former; the brass needle may be termed the corrector. Nothing more is necessary than to place the magnetic needle and the corrector at the angle of the variation, in such a manner that the former being in the magnetic meridian, the latter shall be in the true meridian. The south end of the corrector will point to the true bearing of an object, seen through the sights of the Theodolite.

‘ I also beg to lay before the committee a ship's compass, in which will be found a different application of the same principle. In this instrument, the needle is made moveable under the compass card, so as to be placed by the officer of the watch, or any other proper person, under the variation line, as often as an azimuth or an amplitude shall have been taken. The points of the compass will, by these means, be directed to their corresponding points in the heavens, and the mariner will know that he is really sailing upon the rhumb indicated by the cord.’

Reflect-

Reflecting on the impossibility of moving persons with limbs dreadfully broken, so as to allow them to obey even the calls of nature, Henry Earle, Esq. of Hanover-square, has invented a *Bed, or rather a Frame to be attached to a Bedstead, for Persons whose Limbs are fractured, or who are sick and infirm.* This contrivance seems to be well calculated for affording accommodation to patients; and the recommendation of several hospital-surgeons is a sufficient proof of its merit.

The instrument commonly used in cupping for making the incisions being regarded as imperfect, Mr. John Fuller (No. 14. Hatton-garden,) presented to the Society his *Improved Scarificator*; in which the lancets diverge when they are discharged; and which, from the neatness of its operation, has obtained the sanction of medical men.

Mr. George Prior, jun. (of Otley, in Yorkshire,) was remunerated in 1809 (see M. R. Vol. lxx. N. S. p. 73.) for a clock-escapement, which worked with so little friction as not to require any oil; and he here offers an *improved Remontoire Escapement for Pendulum-Clocks*, which promises to effect great accuracy in keeping time. As Mr. Prior has paid great attention to the subject, his observations on this new escapement merit notice:

‘ 1st. That the renovating and detent springs must spring from one centre, and as similarly as possible.

‘ 2d. That the force applied to the train must be so much more than what will wind up the renovating spring, as will overcome the influence of oil and friction on the pivots of the machine.

‘ 3d. That the renovating spring, when unwound, must rest against the point of the tooth of the wheel, which will be an advantage, as it thereby takes as much force off the tooth of the wheel resting against the detent spring, as is equal to the pressure of the renovating spring against the face of the tooth of the wheel.

‘ 4th. The detent springs must be made as slender and light as possible, though whatever force they take from the pendulum, by their elasticity in removing them to unlock the wheel, so much force they return to the pendulum in following it, to where it removed them from, therefore action and re-action will be equal in contrary directions.

‘ 5th. That it is unnecessary for the pendulum to remove the detent or renovating springs, much farther than is necessary to free the teeth of the wheel, as it will always vibrate up to the same arc; in table-clocks it ought to remove them further, so that it can go when not placed exactly level, or what is generally termed, out of the beat.’

To this paper we shall add one of a similar nature, from Mr. John Prior, (father of Mr. G. Prior,) of Nessfield, near Shipton in Craven, detailing *Improvements in the striking Part of a Clock*;

‘ My

' My new invented method of striking (says Mr. P.) is easily and expeditiously made, as it lays aside the train of wheels and pinions, which is much better substituted by a small part of a circle, at the end of a lever toothed, which is elevated with the hammer, and may be put out of the frame of the clock turning a fly forwards and backwards. The first motion is to regulate the rapidity with which the hammer would strike, and the latter has nothing to do with the power that struck the hammer, but is acted on by gravity, which will regulate the intervals between the strokes more accurately than any train of wheels and pinions can do with a fly; at the end of which motion it unlocks a detent, which stops against the pins that strike the hammer in the wheel without teeth; and as the elevation of the lever puts forwards the count wheel one tooth, till one of the twelve pins for the use of counting the hours, or the proper number to be struck, comes into the way of the lever, and then prevents it from unlocking the detent, then the clock gives over striking till the next hour.'

The elegancies of modern life are often obtained by operations dangerous to workmen, but of which our gentry have no idea. In the business of water-gilding, the men are liable to the most serious injuries from the deleterious fumes of mercury, which they inhale when taking the gilded metal out of the furnace, and in the subsequent operation of rubbing. Mr. Richard Bridgen (No. 61. Broad-street, Bloomsbury,) has therefore invented a *Sort of Case for the Head, to prevent the Inhalation of noxious Vapours in gilding Metals*; which keeps the quick-silver, when in a volatile state, from entering the mouth and nostrils, and injuring the bowels, nerves, and speech of the operator. This is surely a praiseworthy invention.—Connected with this article, we have to notice another humane attention. Our ladies are not aware that the operation of pointing needles is pernicious to the health of the work-man: but that fact was known to Mr. Thomas Wood, of Great Berkhamstead, Herts, and he has endeavoured, by his invention of an inclosed grindstone, with a hood, *to prevent prejudicial Effects to Persons employed in pointing Needles*. Water-gilders and needle-grinders will attend to these communications.

The last paper, which we have to mention under the head of mechanical inventions, is from Mr. George Webster, of Leeds, who has explained *his Mode of conveying Steam from Boilers*, which will be peculiarly acceptable to glue-makers, tallow-chandlers, &c., in whose business the effluvia are offensive. The contrivance is judicious: but we question whether it be entirely new. A steam-chimney over the boiler has, we believe, been often adopted: but the boards, fitting close over the larger half of the circle of the top of the pan, may be an improvement, by helping to carry the steam up the steam-flue.

COLONIES AND TRADE.

Here the first communication that presents itself is from the Society's old and valuable correspondent Dr. Wm. Roxburgh, of Calcutta, and is intitled *An Account of a new Species of Nerium, the Leaves of which yield Indigo, with an Engraving of the Plant, and Descriptions and Engravings of the necessary Apparatus for manufacturing the Indigo. To which is added, a brief Account of the Result of various Experiments made with a View to throw some additional Light on the Theory of that artificial Production. Also Descriptions of two other Plants which yield Indigo, and of one from Pegu, said to yield a Green Dye.* This is an instructive and interesting paper; and in order to invite the attention of the public to it, we find it introduced by the following notice:

' In the present state of the commerce of this country, when our enemies are endeavouring to close every foreign port against us, it is the Society's wish and endeavour to show the great advantages and resources which may be derived from our colonies, and to give every encouragement in facilitating their efforts to furnish articles which will answer the purpose of those usually derived from foreign kingdoms. Supplies from such being generally precarious, and procured at a great expence to this country.

' In the year 1786 Great Britain was almost wholly dependent upon Spain and France for the indigo made use of in our manufactures; the imports of this article from the East Indies at that period being only 57,002l. in value. By subsequent encouragements given to its product and manufacture in our colonies in the East Indies, the quantity of indigo sent to London from thence has annually increased to an immense extent, being in the year 1809, 4,740,926lbs. weight, and in value 1,105,678l. sterling; and this country is now rendered wholly independent of any foreign power for the article.'

Dr.R. informs us that he discovered this species of *Nerium* in 1790, in the lower regions of the mountainous track forming the Rajah-mundry frontier, and then proceeds to give the botanical characters and description of this useful plant:

' *NERIUM.*

' *Linn. Gen. Pl. Ed. Schreb, No. 420.*

' GEN. CHAR. *Contorted. Corol* funnel-shaped; mouth of the tube with a lacerated crown. *Follicles* two, *Seed* crowned with a coma.

' *Nerium tinctorium, Roxb.*

' Arboreous, leaves opposite, short-petioled, oblong, entire, smooth. Panicles terminal. Follicles pendulous, long, slender, united at the apex. — Anthers naked.

' *Thsil-ankaloo*, of the Telingas.

' *Nerium indicum, siliquis angustis, &c. Burm. Zeyl. p. 167. t. 77.*

' An

‘ An elegant middle-sized tree, agreeing perfectly in its botanical character with the Genus *Nerium* of the Linnean sexual system, and from the quality of its leaves may very properly be called *Nerium tinctorium*, which may be rendered dyers’ rose-bay, for to me it appears a new species: it comes nearest to *Nerium antidysentericum*, Linn. *Sp. Pl. Ed. Willd.* 1. p. 1236., the tree which yields the Conessi bark of our *Materia Medica*, Codaga-pala of the Hortus Malabaricus, p. 85. t. 47. Pala-cadija of the Telingas. They are both natives of the lower region of those mountains which bound the Rajah-mundry Circar on the north side, and are so much alike in most respects, the Nectarium excepted, that without a tolerable knowledge of both, the one may be mistaken for the other; and it is probable the bark of this new *Nerium* may have been gathered and sold for Conessi bark, to which may be attributed the disrepute that has fallen upon Conessi bark in Europe; for with the natives in these parts of India, it is deemed a specific in most complaints of the bowels, and I am inclined to think that it deserves a better name than it has hitherto acquired among Europeans.’

The *Wood* of this tree is thus described: ‘ white, close-grained, very beautiful, approaching the colour and appearance of ivory. The natives employ it for a variety of uses, where a beautiful, light, close-grained wood is wanted. It is strong, and would answer well for furniture, was it not apt to acquire a blueish tinge towards the centre. They (the Telingas) say, that if the bark of the tree is burnt off, by lighting a fire round it when first felled, the wood will ever retain its whiteness and beauty.’

Next follows an account of the apparatus and process for manufacturing the *Nerium Indigo*: but it is much too long for us to extract the whole. The difficulty attending this operation results from the peculiar quality of the leaves of the plant; which, unlike the common indigo, will not communicate their colour to cold water: but in warm water they readily yield their colouring matter; and Dr. R. has given ample directions for constructing the vats, cistern, &c., that are requisite in this operation, as well as a view of the *Nerium Indigo Works* in Hindostan. The following passages may be sufficient to afford a general idea of the process:

‘ The leaves of the *Nerium* tree, in these parts of India, begin to be fit for making indigo in the month of April, and in May and June *, I have found them to yield a better colour than in any

‘ * The hottest time of the year. In the shade the thermometer, during the heat of the day, is generally above one hundred, often from one hundred and ten to one hundred and fifteen, and exposed to the sun (nearly perpendicular). On the rocky barren soil, where these bushes grow, it rises between one hundred and forty and one hundred and fifty, an astonishing heat for vegetables to flourish in!’

other

other month. About the end of August the growth of the plant begins to draw to a close for the season; the leaves acquiring a yellowish rusty colour, soon fall off, without being succeeded by others, or in a trifling degree, till next season, so that here with the plants in a wild state (which is the state I always allude to in these observations) I can only reckon the length of the season for making the indigo at four or at most five months in the year.'—

'The leaves being collected, for instance, on the preceding day, are put into the coppers, or other vessels, in sufficient quantity, (full) but not pressed down, and then the vessels are filled with cold water, to within two or three inches of the top, and so much must be left because here the bulk enlarges by the heat, fully as much as the common indigo vat does by fermentation. The fire is then lighted, which must be maintained rather briskly till the liquor acquires a deep green colour when viewed in the vessel; but if taken up, and poured from one vessel into another, it will appear of a pale, but bright greenish-yellow; the leaves will then begin to assume a yellowish colour, and the heat of the liquor will be of about one hundred and fifty, or one hundred and sixty degrees of Fahrenheit's scale. Little dependence can be placed on the copper, or violet scum, as the leaves must be constantly agitated, and turned upside down, to produce, as nearly as possible, an equal degree of scalding; if not, those at the bottom would be much overdone before those at the surface were ready. The motion answers another purpose, it serves to expel the fixed air, which greatly forwards the operation. The fires must be withdrawn, or suffered to die away, some little time before the liquor has acquired the above-mentioned appearance; and it is necessary to have all the different vessels, that are to be let into the same agitation-vat, ready at the same time: a little practice will soon render this easy of performance. When they are ready, the whole is drawn off at once. A contrivance must be made to let the liquor pass through a hair-cloth (a coarse Comly, such as the poorer classes of the natives wear in cold weather, answers remarkably well) to prevent any of the leaves, &c. getting into the agitation-vat with it. As soon as the whole is run off, it must be, while hot, agitated in the common way for a few minutes; from five to twenty will generally be found sufficient to produce the necessary degree of granulation. About from one-seventieth to one hundredth part of strong, pure lime-water, is then let in (the liquor being still hot) from the lime-water cistern, which requires only to be sufficiently mixed with the liquor, to produce, quickly, a very large grain, which soon precipitates. The supernatant liquor is then let off, and the rest of the process is exactly as in making the common fermented indigo.

'If the process has been properly conducted, the supernatant liquor will run off of a clear Madeira wine colour, which is a sign that it retains none of the indigo; and the produce of indigo, when dry, will average about one pound from every two hundred and fifty pounds of the green leaves; but varies according to the season and state of the weather when gathered.'

It is farther observed that, as the Nerium tree or bush is found in great plenty, any quantity of this indigo may be made;

made; that the quality is good; and that the supply may be regular, because the tree is not liable to any of those accidents to which the common Indigo-plant is exposed. Great pains seem to have been taken by Dr. R. to ascertain the theory of this artificial production: but, as his apparatus was rude, and as he owns that his knowledge of the late improvements in chemistry is very limited, it may not be necessary to attend to the results which he details, since probably more accurate experiments will be made to determine the points in question.

To this paper are subjoined descriptions of two other newly discovered Indigo-plants: the first of which is the Carneeli of the Telingas, called here *Indigofera Cœrulea*, Roxb., and said to yield a most beautiful light Indigo; and the second is the Taroom-akkar, a stately, useful creeper, a native of the island of Sumatra, and here denominated *Asclepias tinctoria*, Roxb. The *New Species of Asclepias*, here termed *Asclepias tingens*, Roxb., said to produce a green dye, was in 1795 brought from Pegu by Dr. Buchanan, and now flourishes in the Botanic Garden at Calcutta: but Dr. B. was not told by the Burman people how this green dye was obtained, and every experiment made by Dr. R. to gain it from the leaves of the *Asclepias tingens* has been without effect. The physician is inclined to think that the Burman people played a little on the divine's credulity, and *designedly* forgot to inform the Doctor that it was necessary to dye the cloth yellow or blue either before or after the application of the colour prepared from the leaves of the plant.

Four short letters from Dr. R. are added. In the 1st, he strongly recommends his East-India fever bark, called *Swietenia fibrifuga*, as containing a much larger proportion of active, bitter, and astringent powers, than the Peruvian bark. In the 2d, he mentions a very cheap resin, the produce of a large tree, by the natives of Bengal called *Saul*, and by himself denominated *Shorea robusta*. In the 3d, he announces a packet of black myrabolans, (*Myrabolanus Indica*), which he considers as the unripe fruit of the same tree that produces the *Chebule myrabolans*, and which he recommends as containing much tannin in little bulk: he also corrects a mistake in a former letter, in which it was stated that *hurra* was the fruit of *terminalia citrina*, whereas he finds that it is the fruit of the *terminalia chebula*. Lastly, he expresses a wish that our tanners would make experiments on some extracts from the gaub fruit, which he had forwarded to England. The Society, with the patriotic spirit with which it is uniformly actuated, has subjoined this notice to Dr. R.'s communication: 'Samples of the several articles above mentioned will be delivered for trial to such per-

sons as will engage to favour the Society with the result of their experiments thereon.'

In the botanical department, Dr. Alexander Anderson, of the Royal Botanical Garden at St. Vincent's, greatly resembles Dr. Roxburgh in his assiduity to advance our knowledge and possession of useful plants; and a letter from him is here printed, containing *Interesting Communications*. Being unable to avail himself of an offer made by Admiral Sir Alexander Cochrane, to send a ship with him to Cayenne to procure such plants as were wanted for the Botanical Garden, he deputed his friend and fellow-labourer Mr. Lockhead, who seems to have executed his commission in a very satisfactory manner:

• My great desideratum from that quarter was to obtain the nutmeg-tree, as the one I have in this garden is a male, and of no use alone. I had no doubt but an ample supply would be readily got from the present possessor of that colony, and the captain of the vessel carried a very polite letter from the Admiral to the Governor there: but such was his illiberal and ungenerous conduct, that he gave neither aid nor countenance towards our obtaining an individual plant of any kind. Fortunately Mr. Lockhead met with a French botanist, from whom he procured three young nutmeg trees; and from his perseverance, combined with that of Captain Dix, of the *Cygnat*, they brought with them four large boxes full of plants, several of them valuable, amongst which were the *Hevea guianensis* of Aublet, (the *Caoutchouc*, or gum-elastic tree,) several clove plants, black pepper, couma, and bagossa, (Aublet,) some palms, fruits, esculents, &c. To counterbalance the disappointment at Cayenne, Mr. Lockhead generously made me a present of two very fine young nutmeg trees, which he had nursed in Trinidad for three years. Immediately after his return from Cayenne, Captain Dix went to Trinidad and brought them here in a flourishing state, so that if no accident happens to them, they will produce fruit about two years hence.'

Dr. A. longs to possess the true Ipecacuanha plant, and to know whether the Columbo plant has been brought to England.

A letter from Mr. Andrew Wilson, of the Stereotype Office, near the Veterinary College, St. Pancras, terminates the 28th volume. He details the advantages which *Stereotype Printing* possesses over the common mode by moveable types; and for his skill and exertions in the art he has been rewarded with the Society's gold medal.

The 29th vol. contains only two short articles in this class: the first respecting a *System of curing British White Herrings in the Dutch Method*, by Francis Fortune, Esq. of Lower Thames-street; and the second a *Method of curing British White Herrings*, (equal to the Dutch, or better,) by Mr. Peter Sleavin, No. 7.,

Little Brook-street, Hampstead-road.—The Society, having had the advantage of us in being enabled to taste these herrings, can better decide on their goodness; and we must suppose, from the adjudication of the gold medal to Mr. F., and the silver medal to Mr. S., that their methods were approved.

Thus have we endeavoured to notice the numerous papers contained in these publications; and when we advert to the variety of benevolent, useful, and patriotic inventions which this Society encourages and rewards, we must regard it as highly intitled to patronage, and are happy to find that it is in every respect in a flourishing state. By stimulating inventive genius in every department of life, it tends to increase the benefits of civilization, and to abridge the labour and enlarge the comforts of man: it endeavours to extend blessings to the poor as well as to the rich; and, while it strives to advance the arts and manufactures of the country, to secure workmen from those miseries to which they are exposed by the dangerous nature of their calling.

The remainder of these volumes includes the Rules and Orders of the Society, the enumeration of Presents, Lists of the Members, &c. &c.; and the Premiums offered in the years 1810 and 1811 are placed immediately after the preface.

From the Society's foreign correspondents, much valuable information has from time to time been obtained; and we are assured that it is in possession of recent communications from several of our colonies abroad, which will hereafter be given to the public.

ART. VI. *A brief Account of the Countries adjoining the Lake of Tiberias, the Jordan, and the Dead Sea.* By M. Seetzen, *Conseiller d'Ambassade de S. M. l'Empereur de Russie.* Published for the Palestine Association of London. 4to. pp. 52. 3s. 6d. Hatchard.

THE principal object of the Society in London, which is called the Palestine Association, is to remove or at least to diminish the ignorance which still prevails respecting the eastern part of the Holy Land. Adopting the word Palestine not in the confined sense of Judæa, but as comprehending all the country on either side of the Jordan which was inhabited in former ages by the tribes of Israel, the Society is anxious to receive from any quarter information respecting the almost unknown country to the east of that river. The part of Palestine, which has been generally visited by the Europeans who have repaired to it from motives either of curiosity or devotion, is the beaten track from Jaffa or Acre to Jerusalem: of the rest of the country, the maps hitherto published are known to be extremely

extremely defective ; and even the latitude and longitude of the towns along the coast have not been accurately ascertained. The journal of M. Seetzen, who fills a subordinate station in the Russian diplomatic corps, was not transmitted in the first instance to the above-mentioned Association, but to one of his personal friends in Saxony ; and a copy of it having fallen into the hands of some members of the National Institute at Paris, it was sent over to Sir Joseph Banks, who lost no time in presenting it to the Palestine Association. The members of that body, putting full confidence in M. Seetzen's veracity, and considering that his report, though too brief to extinguish curiosity, comprehended several very interesting topics, have now offered a translation of it to the public.

M. Seetzen begins by remarking that he was aware, from the records both of the Jews and the Romans, that the tract of country comprehending the provinces of the Moabites, Ammonites, Amorites, &c., had in former ages been very populous ; and it was in this region, known in the time of the emperors by the name of *Peræa*, that the celebrated Decapolis, or district including ten allied cities, was situated. Here, as in the other countries subjugated by the Romans, were still remaining substantial specimens of their architecture ; and even the lapse of fifteen centuries has not effaced entirely these vestiges of their characteristic perseverance. The ardour excited in M. Seetzen, however, by the knowledge of the former condition of this country, was not seconded by a concurrent feeling on the part of his friends at Damascus, who all agreed in representing a journey to this neglected quarter as replete with difficulty and danger : but he was inflexible ; and having, after several fruitless attempts, prevailed on an Arminian to accompany him as a guide, he proceeded, in December 1805, to the country lying north-east of the sea of Galilee, and known by the name of *Al-Lahja*. He found it occupied by Bedouin Arabs ; and its soil presented, in many parts, nothing but basalt, which was often very porous, and formed a succession of stony deserts. The villages, for the most part in ruins, are situated on the sides of the rocks ; and from the blackness of the stone, as well as the total absence of trees and verdure, they present a sombre and melancholy aspect. Yet almost every village exhibits Greek inscriptions, columns, or other monument of antiquity.

After having experienced some danger of being plundered by the Arabs, M. Seetzen left *Al-Lahja*, and visited the country situated at the foot of Mount Hermon ; the summit of which rose, covered with snow, above those of all the surrounding mountains. Here he saw the antient city of *Cæsarea Philippi* reduced to a miserable hamlet of twenty huts, inhabited by

Mohammedana. Proceeding southward, he came to the district east of the sea of Galilee; travelling in the character of a physician, but unaccompanied by a guide, because the terror of the wild inhabitants of the spot deterred all who were animated by less powerful feelings than M. Seetzen from treading on such forbidden ground. The country, like Al-Lahja, was in general wild, mountainous, and composed of basalt; the most pleasant feature in the prospect being the Lake of Galilee, which met the eye from elevated positions. At the southern point of this lake, begins the beautiful plain of El-Ghôr, surrounded by two chains of mountains, but little cultivated by the wandering tenants of its fields. In prosecuting his farther researches, M. Seetzen, and a guide whom he procured at Edrei, were obliged to resort to the odd expedient of throwing off their ordinary clothes and covering themselves with rags; in fact, of assuming the disguise of common beggars. That nothing about him might tempt the rapacity of the Arabs, he 'put over his shirt an old dressing gown, and above that an old blue and ragged shift, covering his head with shreds, his feet with old slippers, and using a branch of a tree for a walking stick.' In this uncouth garb, he traversed the country for ten days, frequently wetted to the skin by the rain, and obliged to trudge for many miles through the mud. The fruits of this painful excursion consisted in an accurate survey of the ruins of Edrei, Gadara, Abila, and Gerasa, the last of which was found to retain traits of great magnificence. He was enabled to count nearly two hundred columns, which yet partly support their entablatures, and the number thrown down is much more considerable. Even at Amman, a city which existed before the arrival of the Jews from Egypt, several vestiges of antient buildings are still perceptible. It was called by the Romans, from its position on both sides of a river, *Civitas aquarum*; and the ruins now in existence are probably erections of the time of the Lower Empire.—The antient Amathusa appears to have stood on the site of the modern town of Assalt, a few miles east of the Jordan.

The river Jordan rises to the northward of Palestine, near Mount Hermon. Milton assigns to it two sources:

" Here the double-founted stream
Jordan, true limit eastward."

PAR. LOST, b. xii.

By the double founts, is meant the little lake of Phiala on the one side, and, on the other, the copious spring of the rivulet Panaass or Baniass, two leagues east of Phiala. The beauty of the spring of the Panaass gave it a fair title to the name of "source of the Jordan:" but, if we are guided by size of current, a preference will be assigned to the spring of the river
Hasberia,

Hasberia, which brings the largest contribution of any of the early subsidiary streams to the Jordan. The united waters, flowing southwards, acquire a breadth of about one hundred feet before they fall into the Lake of Galilee; with a depth which, though very different according to season and situation, may in general be called ten or twelve feet. On issuing from the Lake of Galilee, the body of water is much increased, and continues holding a southerly course, receiving smaller streams from east and west, until it is absorbed in the Dead Sea. To visit the shores of the latter was one of the principal objects of M. Seetzen's peregrinations. In his former excursion, he had found the inhabitants living in caves: but, in this dreary quarter, large tracts were seen to be wholly desolate. The only considerable river to the east of the Dead Sea is the Arnon, the antient limit between the Amorites and Moabites. The ruins of Robba, (Rabbath-Moab,) the residence of the kings of Moab, are still visible. Karrak, the first inhabited spot discovered by a traveller arriving from the north, is a village on the top of a mountain, and commanding an extensive prospect of the Dead Sea. In this elevated region, in the month of April, the travellers sometimes found it necessary to walk fast to keep themselves warm; while, on the next day, when descending into a plain, they experienced the heat of a tropical climate. They now arrived at the southern point of the Dead Sea, and passed a mountain of chrystallized salt, which extends ten miles in length, and impregnates the water with a bitter taste. No marine plants were discernible along the shore of this singular lake; and if the traveller has not provided a supply of fresh water, he will experience great sufferings from thirst. M. Seetzen observed in it an island of considerable extent.

The waters of this inland sea have been analyzed since M. Seetzen's journey; and 500 grains, evaporated to dryness, gave as a residue 213 grains of salt. In the farther process of analysis, it appeared that 100 parts of the water contained

Muriate of magnesia	-	-	24.20
Muriate of lime	-	-	10.60
Muriate of soda	-	-	7.80
			42.60

Sea-water in the latitude of the Canary islands has been found to contain, in the quantity of 100 cubic inches,

Muriate of soda	-	-	1393 grains.
Muriate of magnesia	-	-	380
Sulphate of lime	-	-	45
			1818 *

* Bergman's Opusc. Vol. i. p. 181.

The specific gravity of the water of the ocean was 1.028; that of the water of the Dead Sea, 1.245 : but the most remarkable difference consisted in the circumstance that, in the latter, the earthy muriates, which give to the water its great sharpness and bitterness, exceed the proportion of common salt in the ratio of 9 to 2 ; while, in the former, the common salt exceeds the others in nearly the same degree. The water of the Dead Sea is limpid, and the salt extracted from it is said to be of excellent quality. Nothing can be more absurd than the tales of iron swimming on its surface, of birds falling dead in their passage over the water, or even of the peculiar unhealthiness of its vapours. The asphaltum, or solid bituminous substance, collected from the surface of the water by the Arabs, and sold in large lumps in Jerusalem, is said to ooze out of the rocks, and to be formed gradually into a thick crust. Much, however, remains to be ascertained respecting the Dead Sea. Its circumference is equal to six days' journey; and M. Seetzen acknowledges (p. 43.) that it had been in his power to visit only a small part of this extent. Yet, limited as were his observations on Palestine, they bear every appearance of accuracy, and form a very useful addition to our topographical knowledge.

ART. VII. *A Topographical Dictionary of the Dominion of Wales*; exhibiting the Names of the several Cities, Towns, Parishes, Townships, and Hamlets, with the County and Division of the County, to which they respectively belong.—The Valuation and Patrons of Ecclesiastical Benefices, and the Tutelary Saint of each Church.—The resident Population, according to the Returns made to Parliament in 1801 ; and the Amount of the Parochial Assessments according to the Returns made to Parliament in 1803. — The Distance and Bearing of every Place from the nearest Post-Office, and of the Post-Offices from the Metropolis. — Markets and Fairs. — Members of Parliament and Corporations. — Free Schools. — Petty Sessions, and Assizes. — To which is added, Miscellaneous Information respecting Monastic Foundations, and other Matters of Local History. Compiled from actual Inquiry, and arranged in alphabetical Order; being a Continuation of the Topography of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. By Nicholas Carlisle, Fellow and Secretary of the Society of Antiquaries of London. 4to. Price 3l. 3s. Boards. Longman and Co., Nicol, &c. 1811.

IN reviewing the former volumes of the work of which this professes to be a continuation, (M. R. Vol. lvi. N. S. p. 415.) we spoke in terms of commendation both of the plan and the execution; and in delivering our sentiments on the addition before us, since the accounts which it contains are more extended,
and

and consequently more useful and interesting, we feel it our duty to speak of it still more favourably.

The reason assigned by the author for not incorporating the dominion of Wales in his topographical dictionary of England was that, 'the orthography of the names and appellatives in that part of the kingdom appearing irregular, he could not prevail upon himself to throw them into alphabetical form without having attained some knowledge of the language and of the country.' The publication of the account of that district being for this cause deferred, the delay which was created by accident proved the means of rendering the details much more ample; for the author, as he expresses himself, being sensible of his incompetence to the undertaking, determined to solicit the aid of intelligent persons throughout the principality. With this view, in March 1808, he circulated a letter, with fifteen specific questions subjoined to it, directed to the officiating minister of every parish in the dominion of Wales; of which one thousand, seven hundred, and fifty copies were printed and distributed. In the month of November following, an advertisement was inserted in all the newspapers, which are in use throughout Wales, respectfully thanking those clergymen who had warmly and liberally promoted his inquiries by their very satisfactory and copious answers; repeating the questions to those who might not have received the circular letter, or who might not have had leisure to comply with his request; and at the same time inviting the laity to co-operate in the completion of his object. He thus states the success which he experienced:

'He can only by a pure and simple expression endeavour to convey his gratitude and respect, when he records that concerning *every parish in the dominion of Wales* he has received not only information, but from many of their worthy ministers kind and encouraging offers of additional aid.

'In several of the parochial descriptions, the author has availed himself of the opportunity to mention with becoming respect the names of the clergymen who contributed to them, thereby also giving sanction to the information now communicated. Moreover, lest any thing of consequence might have been omitted, as soon as the descriptions of each county were compiled, the manuscripts were then sent for revision to the following gentlemen, who are well skilled in the Welsh language, and conversant with their respective counties*.

* It is proper to mention here, in justice to the worthy ministers of the counties of Carnarvon, Denbigh, Flint, and Merioneth, that those counties have not been revised by reason of the extraordinary behaviour of a gentleman in Merionethshire; who having voluntarily pledged himself to perform that office, not only *broke his promise*, but *has kept the manuscripts* which were confided to his care.

Anglesea, to the Rev. Samuel Rowlands, of Aber Ffraw. *Brecon*, to the Rev. Henry Thomas Payne, of Llan Bedr. *Caermarthen*, to the Rev. Thomas Beynon, of Llan Deilo Fawr. *Cardigan*, to the Rev. Thomas Thomas, of Aber Porth. *Glamorgan*, to the Rev. John Collins, M. A. of Ilston, for the hundreds of Llan Gefelach and Gwyr; and to the Rev. William Berkin Meacham Lisle, LL.D. of St. Fagan's, for the remainder of that county. *Montgomery*, to the Rev. Walter Davies, of Manafon. *Pembroke*, to the Rev. Edward Hughes, of Tenby. *Radnor*, to the Rev. Henry Williams, of Rhayader.

'The author is ignorant of any better method by which accuracy could have been obtained; and he dares not trust the fullness of his heart to express the esteem and gratitude which he feels, and *ever shall feel*, for such honourable, unprecedented, and zealous support.'

On examining the work, we find that it contains all which its ample title-page professes to supply, together with much other interesting information; among which are the returns of livings under 150l. per annum, made to the governors of the bounty of Queen Ann for the augmentation and maintenance of the poor clergy, by the archbishops and bishops of their respective dioceses, in the year 1810. At the end of the preface is likewise subjoined a list of the most important topographical and historical works which have been consulted; and to make the whole as complete as the author could render it, he has added directions to such of his readers as may be strangers to the Welsh language, shewing the right pronunciation of all the letters that differ from the English orthography: with a copious glossary, or explanation of the descriptive Welsh words which most frequently occur in the names and appellatives of places. In order to give our readers a more particular idea of the book, we shall make one or two extracts; selecting accounts of a parish and of a town:

'**ABER GWILI**, in the Cwmwd of Elfed, Cantref Mawr, (now called the hundred of Elfed, county of Carmarthen, South Wales,) a discharged V., valued in the King's books at 3l. 6s. 8d. Patron, the Bishop of St. David's: church ded. to St. David. The resident population of this parish in 1801 (consisting of the hamlets of Crôg Glâs, Fyneu, Glann Tywi, Hengil, and Ystym Gwili) was 1617. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was 450l. 6s. at 7s. 9d. in the pound. It is 2 m. E.b.N. from Carmarthen. The fairs are holden on the 2d and 27th of October. The present worthy vicar, the Rev. William Morgan, very obligingly adds, Aber Gwili is situate in the lordship or manor of Wydigada, of which Lord Cawdor is lord of the manor. Tradition says there were formerly several chapels in this parish, of which only one now remains, called Llanfihangel Uwch Gwili: I have seen some ruins of another called Cappel Bâch. It is governed by a portrieve who is chosen annually about Michaelmas, at a court leet, holden
for

for Fyneu (or the Village Hamlet), a small lordship of which the Bishop of St. David's is lord of the manor. Here is an endowed free school for 12 poor children of the parish. Its extent from south-east to north-west is about eight miles, and its breadth in the middle, about five miles. It is mostly enclosed and cultivated, except between 4 and 500 acres of common, which are not enclosed. It is pleasantly situate near the confluence of the river Gwili with the Tywi. "Thomas Beck, Bishop of St. David's, (perhaps upon his college at Langadoc's not taking effect) made the church here collegiate A.D. 1287, for 22 prebendaries, 4 priests, 4 choristers, and 2 clerks, to the honour likewise of St. Maurice. Henry Gower, Bishop of St. David's, ordained A.D. 1334, that there should be in this college a precentor, chancellor, and treasurer, and made some orders relating to it. But King Henry VIII., thinking it an improper place for hospitality, and that some of the revenues of it might be much better employed, annexed it A.D. 1541 to his new erected college at Brecknock. It was valued 26 Hen. VIII. at 42l. per ann. as Dugdale, Speed, and M. S. Valor." Tanner's Not. Mon. — According to the Diocesan Report, in 1809, the yearly value of this benefice arising from augmentation, tythes of hay, rent of glebe, fixed stipend, and surplice fees, was 110l. 17s. 10d."

ABER YSTWITTH, in the cwmwd of Creiddyn, cantref of Penwedig (now called the hundred of Genau'r Glynn), county of Cardigan, South Wales; in the parish of Llan Badarn Fawr: a perpetual curacy, not in charge: patron, the Vicar of Llan Badarn Fawr. Church ded. to St. Michael. The resident population of this township, in 1801, was 1758. The money raised by the parish rates, in 1803, was 329l. 3s. 7d. at 3s. in the pound. It is 202½ m. W.N.W. from London. The markets are on Monday and Saturday. The first Monday in November, and that in May, are called *Hiring Mondays*; when a great number of persons meet here to hire servants, by ancient custom. It is one of the contributory boroughs to Cardigan. It was incorporated by Edward I. and is governed by a mayor, recorder, and common council. The petty sessions are holden here. It is situate on the bay of Cardigan; and according to Mr. Meyrick, is a very pleasant summer-retreat, and is improving yearly. The roads are excellent: the accommodations are good: and they have the several amusements of plays and assemblies. The herring fishery flourished here about thirty years ago; and that fish, as well as cod, is frequently caught at present. The harbour is not sufficiently large or commodious for the utmost extent of trade, of which the place, from its situation, is capable; the bar, at its entrance, preventing ships of any considerable burden from entering, except in spring tides, when there is about fourteen feet of water. The trade, which it carries on at present, is in the exportation of lead, calamine, oak-bark, and corn, and a few manufactured goods to Bristol and Liverpool. The coast is grand, and marine prospect particularly fine. The bathing here is well conducted; and, in general, there is a good sandy bottom at all hours of the tide, notwithstanding the beach is wholly composed of pebbles. The Duke of Leeds, as lord of the manor of Faenor, has a duty of five

five shillings per ton on coals carried coastwise, which was first granted by King Charles the Second. It derives its name from being built exactly opposite the *Aber* or *Mouth* of the river *Tistwith*, i. e. where it falls into the river *Rheidol*. The history of the castle is interesting: it is said to have been the residence of Cadwaladr, the last king of the Britons: in 1109, when Cadwgan ap Bleddyn's dominions were bestowed on Gilbert Strongbow, Earl of Strigil, this fortress fell of course to his possession: in 1116, Gruffydd ap Rhys laid siege to it, but was dreadfully handled by Ralph Steward: in 1135, Owain Gwynedd and Cadwaladr, his brother, in revenge for their sister's murder by Maurice de Londres, destroyed this castle; which was very strong and well garrisoned. It seems, however, to have been soon repaired or rebuilt by Cadwaladr, who is styled Lord of Cardigan, and had his usual residence in this castle, until the unnatural rencontre between him and his son-in-law, Anarod ap Gruffydd:

"*Animosus Anarawd a Socero casus;*"

Pentarchia.

when it was burnt down by his brother, Owain Gwynedd. In 1208 Maelgon ap Rhys, being apprehensive of an hostile visit from Llywelyn ap Iorwerth, and despairing of making any stand against him, demolished this castle; it was rebuilt by Llywelyn. In 1211, King John, having subdued all Wales, on his departure, charged *Foulke*, Viscount Caerdiff, warden of the marches, to oblige Rhys and Owain ap Gruffydd up Rhys to surrender this castle, with which they complied; and it was fortified by the warden, but soon retaken and demolished by Maelgon and Rhys Fychan. In 1222, Rhys ap Gruffydd, having differed with Llywelyn ap Iorwerth respecting a division of property, united his forces to those of the Earl of Pembroke; which so irritated Llywelyn, that he took his castle of Aber Ystwith and all its dependencies: from this period history is silent, until the year 1277, when Rhys ap Meredydd of the royal house of South Wales, surrendered the strong fortress of *Tystrad Tywy* to Edward the First, who, for the better defence of his newly acquired possessions, erected a castle at Aber Ystwith, which was taken, in 1282, by Rhys ap Maelgon and Gruffydd ap Meredydd ap Owain, with other noblemen of South Wales: it was taken by the Prince of Wales, during the insurrection of Owain Glandowr: but soon retaken by Owain, who garrisoned it strongly with his brave, though deluded, countrymen.—A gentleman of the name of *Bushel*, proprietor of the lead mines in this neighbourhood, obtained of King Charles the First the privilege of setting up a mint in this castle, for the payment of his miners. Mr. Bushel, out of gratitude for the favour, when the civil war broke out, clothed the King's whole army, and furnished his Majesty a loan (which was considered as a gift) of forty thousand pounds; and when that unfortunate Prince was pressed by the Parliament, he raised him a regiment among his miners, at his own charge: it was finally garrisoned by the usurper Cromwell. This castle is situate on a rock jutting out into the sea, and has a most romantic appearance. It now belongs to Colonel Johnes, M. P., of Hafod, who having granted a long lease
of

of it to Mr. Probart, of Shrewsbury, steward to Earl Powys, this gentleman has converted it to a delightful purpose, having made walks in it in the most judicious places; and it is now the promenade of the fashionables, who retire to Aber Ystwith during the summer season.—The castle of *Aber Rheidol*, on the confluence of the *Rheidol* and *Ystwith*, was taken by Rhys ap Gruffydd, in 1164 from Roger de Clare, and demolished; this was but a retaliative piece of justice, for the Earl, a little while before, had instigated Walter ap Llywarch, servant of Einion, Rhys's nephew, to murder Einion in his bed.

“*Impiger Einion,*

Prob dolor ! a famulo jugulatus fraude Lomarchi.” Pentarchia.

‘*Castell Strad Pythyll*, not far from *Aber Rheidol*, was taken, in 1116, by Gruffydd ap Rhys, and the garrison slain; it then belonged to Ralph, steward to Gilbert Earl of Strigil; this is called in Mr. Owen's map, *Aber Peithyll*.—Aber Ystwith is at present the largest town in the county of Cardigan. The old church stood to the west of the town; the present church was erected by subscription. According to the diocesan report, in 1809, the yearly value of this benefice, arising from augmentation, rent of land, fixed stipend, and surplice fees, was 86l. 2s. At the *Wûg*, on the north side of the town, a capital harbour, according to Mr. Morris, might be made, by running a pier out on the ridge of the rocks, which may be effected at the expence of about 20,000l; this would then be the best situation on the coast of Wales, for the station of packets between England and Ireland.’

With respect to the orthography of the names of the places, great pains have been taken to render it correct; indeed, it may for the most part be considered as a standard for future writers to follow. That which is adopted by the author is, however, in many cases different from that which is commonly used; and in fixing on it, he endeavoured from various sources to ascertain the most proper mode.

In deciding on the general merit of this compilation, we cannot help expressing our opinion that, had it afforded a general history and description of each county under separate heads, detailing their respective hundreds and divisions; and also had the several hundreds been described as distinct articles, specifying the several parishes which they severally contain; it would have been more satisfactory. At present, the places seem to be quite disjointed; and no reference occurs for any person who is desirous of reading all that is related of any particular county, to procure the desired information. Had the volume also contained a general map of the principality, and particularly maps for each county, its value would have been much enhanced; and we think that the price, at which it is sold, might have afforded such useful appendages. However, while we state these matters as defects, which may be easily remedied

mediated in a second edition, we feel disposed to repeat our favourable opinion of its merits. The general reader will find it both useful and entertaining, and will meet with much information which he may seek in vain in other publications; and all lovers of topography and antiquities, especially those who are connected with the principality, will consider themselves as under great obligations to the author, for the pains which he has taken in collecting so many particulars of this interesting district.

Mr. Carlisle's Topographical Dictionary of Scotland, in pursuance of his general design, has recently appeared, in two volumes, 4to. We shall take farther notice of it, and of the volume relative to Ireland, when opportunity serves.

ART. VIII. *The Beauties of Christianity*. By F. A. De Chateaubriand, Author of *Travels in Greece and Palestine*, *Atala*, &c. Translated from the French by Frederic Shoberl. With a Preface and Notes, by the Rev. Henry Kett, B. D., Fellow of Trinity College, Oxford. 8vo. 3 Vols. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Colburn. 1813.

WHAT a title for such a book, and what a book for such a title! As a *boax* it is abundantly too long, and too laboured; we therefore cannot doubt that the author seriously means to advocate the cause of Christianity: but we are not a little surprised that a Protestant divine should be so highly pleased with M. Chateaubriand's present effusions, as to recommend them by a preface, and to honour them by subjoining notes. In our estimation, a wilder effusion was never offered to the public; and though it displays brilliancy of genius, and an extent of reading, we conceive that it contains neither a just view nor a proper defence of the religion of the New Testament. Mr. Kett's judgment must have been reposing with Orlando's wits, in the valley of the moon, when he gave his sanction to this display of *Beauties*, which are rather those of the Catholic church than of Christianity. It is not that Christianity which was taught by Christ and his apostles, but a Christianity of a subsequent manufacture, that is the object of M. Chateaubriand's delineation and profuse eulogy; and so very extravagant are many of his assertions, that, instead of our perusing them with any satisfaction as affording either an illustration or a defence of our holy religion, they often give us concern as calculated only to excite the jeer of the infidel. We are seriously angry with Mr. Kett for the miserable compliment which he has indirectly paid to the religion of Jesus, by supposing that it could be honoured and promoted by such rhapsodies as those that are contained in M. Chateaubriand's pages. A work intitled the *Beauties of Christianity* might be supposed to include

extracts

extracts from the discourses of Christ and the writings of his apostles : but, instead of such specimens, we are danced about from Dan to Beersheba to be shewn what is *not* Christianity ; and then, as if to make sport for the Philistines (though certainly not with this evil design), the author attaches so much irrationality to religion, that unbelievers, against whom he professedly writes, must be rather gratified than confounded. He requires us to prefer *feeling* to *understanding*, to place *poetry* above *science*, and in short to give reason and philosophy to the dogs. He tells us that ' the *ages of science* have always bordered on the *ages of destruction*,' that ' the irreligious ages necessarily lead to the sciences, and the sciences necessarily produce the irreligious age.' On this principle, the Catholic writer before us would recommend the writings of the fathers in preference to those of the philosophers, and the poems of Dante and Tasso to lectures on chemistry and natural history : but when a professed defender of the Christian religion covertly attempts to discourage rational inquiry, he ought to be told that St. Paul in his time did not think that such paltry management was required from the Christian advocate ; for his words are, "*I speak as unto wise men, judge ye what I say.*" 1 Cor. x. 15.

Under the pretext of displaying to advantage the beauties of Christianity, we are presented with a rich medley of topics, which tend to make a large book, but have no immediate relation to lessons contained in the New Testament. The organization of animals and plants ; — the habits of amphibious animals and reptiles ; — poetry and the fine arts ; — music ; — the Gregorian chant ; — sculpture ; — Gothic churches ; — the ruins of Palmyra ; — the picturesque effects of ruins ; — church bells and clerical ornaments ; — tombs and country church-yards ; — monasteries and monastic institutions ; — missions ; — military orders ; — Benedictines, and Jesuits ; — with a hundred other *cetera*, are dragged into M. Chateaubriand's Christianity : but the Christianity of the Gospel is a divinity of a very different character, and requires to be exhibited with more brevity and simplicity. In Vol. ii. p. 69., this writer asks, ' As to external pomp, what religion was ever accompanied with ceremonies so magnificent as ours ? — with a *thousand* ceremonies which furnish a vast subject for splendid descriptions. The modern Muses who complain of Christianity cannot certainly be acquainted with all its riches.' Unfortunately for M. Chateaubriand, these *thousand ceremonies*, with which he would set up the modern Muses as with a rich stock in trade, are as much parts of the religion of Christ as of the religion of Confucius. The same remark may be applied to the account of chivalry, and of a hundred other irrelevant topics.

Supposing the observation to be correct, which is by no means the case, how is Christianity honoured by our being told that 'the ancients had no descriptive poetry or landscape painters; and that no sooner had the apostles begun to preach than *descriptive poetry made its appearance*.' Why did not M. Chateaubriand attribute the discovery of electricity and galvanism to Christianity? Perhaps he would, if his dread of philosophy had not discouraged him. It is somewhat ludicrous to find *Hell* placed among the *Beauties of Christianity*; and the following recommendation of Dante's *Inferno*, as illustrative of the *poetry of torments*, (what an enchanting species of poetry! and how appropriate to the spirit of the Gospel!) will make the Protestant heretic *grin on both sides of his face*; though, by the way, he ought not to *grin* at a book which Mr. Kett has recommended.

'Would you become acquainted with the poetry of torments, and the hymns of flesh and blood; descend into the hell of Dante. Here spirits are tossed about by the whirlwinds of a tempest; there burning sepulchres inclose the followers of heresy. The tyrants are plunged into a river of warm blood; the suicides, who have disdained the noble nature of man, and sunk towards that of the plant, are transformed into stunted trees, which grow in a burning sand, and whose branches the harpies are incessantly breaking off. These spirits will not be united to their bodies on the day of the general resurrection; they will drag them into a dreary forest, and there suspend them to the boughs of the trees to which they are attached.'

What business, we may be allowed to ask, has a laboured comparison of the book of Genesis with the epics of Homer, in a work professing to give a picture of the Gospel? — but, if M. Chateaubriand undertakes to compare, he surely ought to do ample justice to both parties. In commenting on the incomparably beautiful history of Joseph, it is very justly remarked, on that part of Joseph's speech to his brethren in which he says, "*It was not ye that sent me hither but God*," that 'the Scripture never fails to introduce Providence in the perspective of its pictures.' Scripture does uniformly lead our thoughts to the Great First Cause: but the writer should have informed his readers that a passage *exactly parallel* to that which he has extracted from Genesis, and applauded so highly, is to be found in the *Iliad*. When Helen comes to Priam, instead of upbraiding her as being the sole cause of the miseries of Troy, he refers those sufferings not to her but to the gods:

"Οὐτὶ μοὶ αἰτίν' ἔσσι, θεοὶ νύ αἰτίοι ἔσσιν." IL. Γ. 164.

which Mr. Pope thus renders:

"No crime of thine our present sufferings draws,
Not thou, but Heav'n's disposing will, the cause."

B. iii. l. 215.

On

On the subject of the Fine Arts, M. Chateaubriand observes that, 'following the steps of the Christian religion, they acknowledged her for their mother;' — that 'Christianity has invented the organ, and given sighs to brass;' — and that 'in architecture Christianity has re-established the genuine proportions:' — but does he not here attribute to Christianity that which it never attempted to accomplish?

The following sentence may be admired for its prettiness, but as a *fling* at science it is childish: 'When Newton and Bossuet respectfully uncovered their august heads while pronouncing the name of God, they were perhaps more worthy of admiration at that moment than when the former weighed those worlds, the dust of which the other taught mankind to despise.'

So extravagant is this writer in his representations, that he declares that 'even the art of writing history must have expired, if Christianity had not revived it.' The ancients, says he, 'have exhausted all its colours, and if Christianity had not furnished a new order of reflections and ideas, the doors of history would have been for ever closed against the moderns.'

Under the head of modern history, we have a picture of the English and French nations; and though it does not belong to the subject of his book, it may amuse the reader, and for a moment relieve him from the absurdities which we have been detailing. We shall therefore insert it, especially as the passage is short:

'The English have public spirit, and we have national honour; our good qualities are rather the gifts of Divine favour than the effects of a political education: like the demi-gods, we are more nearly allied to heaven than to earth.

'The French, the eldest sons of antiquity, are Romans in genius, and Greeks in character. Restless and fickle in prosperity, constant and invincible in adversity; formed for all the arts; polished even to excess during the tranquillity of the state; rude and savage in political commotions: tossed like ships without ballast, by the vehemence of all the passions; one moment in the skies, the next in the abyss, enthusiasts alike in good and in evil, doing the former without expecting thanks, and the latter without feeling remorse; remembering neither their crimes nor their virtues; pusillanimously attached to life in time of peace, prodigal of their blood in battle; vain, satirical, ambitious, fond at once of old fashions and of innovations, despising all mankind except themselves; individually, the most amiable; collectively, the most disagreeable of men; charming in their own country, insupportable abroad; alternately more gentle, more innocent than the lamb submitting to the knife, and more merciless, more ferocious than the tiger springing upon his prey — such were the Athenians of old, and such are the French of the present day.'

In his chapter intitled 'Infidelity the principal Cause of the Decline of Taste, and the Degeneracy of Genius,' M. Chateaubriand places the true religion on a footing with false religions.

'When the national religion ceased to obtain belief at Athens and at Rome, talents disappeared with the gods, and the Muses consigned to barbarism those who no longer placed any faith in them.'—

'Infidelity introduces a spirit of cavilling and disputation, abstract definitions, the scientific style, and with it the practice of coining new words, all deadly foes to taste and eloquence.'

If coining new words be a sin, is not M. Chateaubriand's Christianity chargeable with this crime? In his exhibition of doctrines, we certainly meet with terms which are not to be found in the New Testament.

Convents figure largely among these beauties of the Christian religion; and the author avails himself of his travelled knowledge to afford us a delineation of some of these cenobite retreats:

'In the chain of Lebanon are seen here and there Maronite convents erected on the brink of precipices. Into some of these you penetrate through long caverns, the entrance to which is closed by masses of rock: into others you cannot gain access but by means of a basket let down from the edifice. The sacred river gushes from the foot of the mountain; the forest of black cedars overlooks the picture, and is itself surmounted by rounded peaks, clothed with a mantle of snow. The miracle is not complete till the moment you reach the monastery: within are vineyards, streams, groves; without, a dreary nature, and the earth, with its rivers, and plains, and seas, sunk and lost in the azure abyss. Nourished by religion upon these precipitous rocks, between earth and sky, the pious recluses soar aloft to heaven, like the eagles of the mountain.'

Since religion, according to M. Chateaubriand, should be rather poetical than rational, and since 'the vulgar are wiser than philosophers,' he has a high respect for popular devotions; and the hymn to the Virgin Mary, as the *Maris Stella*, or Star of the Sea, makes a figure among his *Beauties of Christianity*. As a composition it is beautiful; and a translation, by the late Dr. Leyden, is inserted in the last note of the second volume: but ought such an effusion to appear, with the sanction of one of our learned clergy, in a work on the nature of the religion of the Gospel?

The third volume opens with some singular reflections on Church Bells. They are new, and in character with the whole of this unique publication:

'To us it seems not a little surprizing that a method should have been found by a single stroke of a hammer, to excite the same sentiment at one and the same instant in thousands of hearts, and to make the winds and clouds the bearers of the thoughts of men.—

'With what transport would Pythagoras, who listened to the hammer of the smith, have hearkened to the sound of our bells on
any

any solemn or joyful occasion ! The soul may be moved by the tones of a lyre, but it will not be rapt into enthusiasm as when roused by the thunders of the combat, or when a powerful peal proclaims in the region of the clouds the triumphs of the God of battles.

‘ The sound of bells has a thousand secret relations with man. How oft amid the profound tranquillity of night has the heavy tolling of the death-bell, like the slow pulsations of an expiring heart, startled the adulteress in her guilty pleasures ! How often has it caught the ear of the Atheist, who in his impious vigils, had perhaps the presumption to write that there is no God ! The pen drops from his fingers ; he counts with consternation the strokes of death, which seem to say to him : *And is there then indeed no God ?* O how such sounds must disturb the slumbers of a Robespierre ! Extraordinary religion, which by the mere percussion of the magic metal can change pleasures into torments, appal the Atheist, and wrest the dagger from the hand of the assassin !

‘ But more pleasing sentiments also attached us to the sound of bells. When, about the time for cutting the corn, the tinkling of the little bells of our hamlets was heard intermingled with the sprightly strains of the lark, you would have thought that the angel of harvest was proclaiming the story of Sephora or of Naomi.’

On the dress of the clergy, this writer is equally poetic :

‘ Fix your eyes on the Christian priest, and you are instantly transported into the country of Numa, Lycurgus, or Zoroaster. The *tiara* shews us the Mede roving among the ruins of Suza and Ecbatan ; the *alb*, whose Latin name reminds us of the dawn of day, and virgin whiteness, affords charming conformities with religious ideas.’

In the third book of the third volume, we have a chapter on ‘ Jesus Christ and his Life ;’ and here indeed we meet with something which is appropriate to the subject undertaken to be discussed. The ‘ *Beauties of Christianity*’ do appear in the following passages :

‘ Jesus Christ appears among men full of grace and truth ; the authority and the mildness of his precepts are irresistible. He comes to be the most unhappy of mortals, and all his wonders are for the wretched. “ His miracles,” says Bossuet, “ have a much stronger character of beneficence than of power.” In order to inculcate his doctrines, he chooses the apologue or parable, which is easily impressed on the minds of the people. While walking in the fields he gives his divine lessons. When surveying the flowers that adorn the mead, he exhorts his disciples to put their trust in Providence, who supports the feeble plants and feeds the birds of the air ; when he beholds the fruits of the earth he teaches them to judge of men by their works : an infant is brought to him and he recommends innocence : being among shepherds, he gives himself the appellation of the *Good Shepherd*, and represents himself as bringing back the lost sheep to the fold. In spring he takes his seat upon a mountain, and draws from the surrounding objects instruction for the multitude sitting at his

his feet. From the very sight of this multitude, composed of the poor and the unfortunate, he deduces his beatitudes: *Blessed are they that weep — blessed are they that hunger and thirst*. Such as observe his precepts, and those who slight them, are compared to two men who build houses, the one upon a rock, the other upon sand: according to some commentators he designed in this comparison to describe a flourishing village upon a hill, and huts at the foot of it destroyed by an inundation. When he asks the woman of Samaria for drink, he expounds to her his heavenly doctrine under the beautiful image of a well of living water.'—

'His character was amiable, open, and tender, and his charity unbounded. The Evangelist gives us a complete and admirable idea of it in these few words: *he went about doing good*. His resignation to the will of God is conspicuous in every moment of his life; he loved and felt the sentiment of friendship: the man whom he raised from the tomb, Lazarus, was his friend; it was for the sake of the grandest sentiment of life that he performed the greatest of his miracles. In him the love of country may find a model: "O Jerusalem, Jerusalem," he exclaimed, at the idea of the judgments which threatened that guilty city, "how often would I have gathered thy children together, even as a hen gathereth her chickens under her wings, and ye would not!" Casting his sorrowful eyes from the top of a hill over this city doomed for her crimes to a signal destruction, he was unable to restrain his tears; *he beheld the city*, says the Evangelist, *and wept over it*. His tolerance was not less remarkable: when his disciples begged him to command fire to come down from heaven on a village of Samaria which had denied him hospitality, he replied with indignation: *Ye know not what manner of spirit ye are of*.'

From the divine character and lessons of Christ, M. Chateaubriand rapidly passes to the hierarchy, and like a zealous Catholic asserts that St. Peter, in the capital of the Roman world, laid the foundation of ecclesiastical power:—we are pleased to find, however, that Mr. Kett has *plucked up spirit* enough to enter his protest against an assertion, for the support of which no clear evidence exists. It is extremely improbable that St. Peter ever visited Rome; it is still more improbable that he was constituted bishop of that city; and as to the statement of 'an illustrious chain of pontiffs, heirs of the apostolic authority, which has been unbroken for more than eighteen hundred years,' it is too hypothetic to be admitted as true history.

Who but this eccentric writer would place the military orders, which sprang up in the dark ages, to the account of Christianity? He seems to think that he honours the Gospel by allying it with chivalry: 'The only poetical period of our history,' says he, 'the age of chivalry, belongs to it [Christianity]: the true religion possesses the singular merit of having created among us the age of fiction and enchantment.' As

well might he have ascribed to Christianity all the persecutions, massacres, and bloody wars which have disgraced Christendom. The religion of Jesus disclaims the use of the sword on any pretext: "*the weapons of its warfare are not carnal,*" its spirit and power center in its benevolence: it may be fair, therefore, to attribute hospitals, and all provisions for the education and comfort of the poor and afflicted, to this source, — as well as some improvement in civil and criminal laws.

This miscellaneous production takes a very wide range, and contains many amusing details; it affords also a very ample view of the institutions of the Roman Catholic church: but we Protestants cannot allow that Catholicism and Christianity are *in all cases* the same. M. Chateaubriand has furnished a learned and splendid reverie: but his work will never be classed among the judicious apologies for the Christian religion, even on the score of displaying its internal evidences; a merit which Mr. Kett seems to think it possesses.

ART. IX. *An Enquiry into the various Systems of Political Economy; their Advantages and Disadvantages; and the Theory most favourable to the Increase of National Wealth.* By Charles Ganilh, Advocate. Translated from the French by D. Boileau, Author of "An Introduction to the Study of Political Economy," &c. 8vo. pp. 492. 14s. Boards. Colburn.

ART. X. *An Introduction to the Study of Political Economy; or an elementary View of the Manner in which the Wealth of Nations is produced, increased, distributed, and consumed.* By D. Boileau. 8vo. pp. 406. 9s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

SIR FRANCIS D'IVERNIS, amid all the faults which he is disposed to attribute to France and her government, has acknowledged, in a work which we lately noticed*, that there are two men, in conspicuous occupations in Paris, who understand the true principles of civil administration. These persons are M. De Guet, author of a well-known tract intitled "*Considerations on Finance,*" and the author of the first-named book in this article. The reader, who is acquainted with the knowledge and judgment of these writers, cannot fail to lament that their sound and enlightened principles have had so little influence on the measures of the French government. Had their advice been followed in the cabinet, they would have taught Bonaparte the folly of wasting, in unprofitable warfare, that part of his population which was most likely to become useful in the capacity of productive

* M. R. Vol. LXIX. p. 514. Appendix.

labourers; and in that case the independence of Spain would not have been assailed, nor would the swamps of Poland have formed a subject of sanguinary contest between France and Russia. Even Holland would have been respected; and the French would have been taught the useful lesson that they could derive more wealth from her commerce while an independent state, than from the most rigorous attempts to compress her resources within their exclusive grasp; or to exempt themselves from the payment of her public debt by violating the faith of the state towards its creditors.

M. Ganilh begins by exhibiting the discrepancies of opinion, among the writers of all countries, with regard to the nature of wealth. Some make a distinction between public and private wealth; others declare wealth to consist in the possession of whatever "ministers to our wants and enjoyments;" while a third party, not satisfied with this comprehensive explanation, insist that wealth is made up of "whatever is superfluous." Equal difference exists respecting the sources of wealth; some systems agreeing in a few points, but being in others so much at variance, that it is impossible to combine them in a general theory.

'Hence,' adds M. Ganilh, 'that variety of systems among authors, of methods among governments, of opinions among the learned; hence the discouragement of those who are desirous of studying the science, and the indifference of those whom a sense of duty should prompt to acquire the knowledge of it; hence also the little respect which Political Economy enjoys in the world, and its total exclusion from the official routine of practical statesmen. Some, in other respects, well-informed men, doubt the existence of the science; others are even tempted to consider it as an occult one, the mysteries of which are revealed only to a few initiated individuals.'

One of the chief points, in which M. Ganilh ventures to differ from Dr. Smith, relates to the propriety of government-interference in matters of trade. Our distinguished countryman appears to give an absolute negative to the question; while M. Ganilh is of opinion that government may, at times, depart from the strict rule of non-interposition, and may pass laws which will give a salutary direction to individual industry. — He divides his work into two general heads; an investigation, I. Of the various Systems concerning the Sources of Wealth; and, II. Of the Systems relating to their different Ramifications, such as Labour, Capital, Circulation, Revenue, &c.

M. Ganilh introduces a forcible contrast between the effects of the pursuit of wealth in a rude and in a civilized age. In the

the former, it leads to war and domestic servitude; while in the latter it seeks the surer course of steady labour and industry. How much is it to be regretted that nations have not yet become aware that they have nothing to fear from the rivalry of each other, and that the manufacturer and the trader in any country will find a source of additional acquisition in the prosperity of their neighbours! Among other points which demonstrate the liberality of M. Ganilh's views, we may reckon his opinion (p. 145.) that the labour of the slave is eventually dearer than that of the free workman. First impressions appear to suggest a contrary conclusion: but, when the subject is probed to the bottom, we shall find that nothing can counterpoise the advantages of the care, the skill, and the frugality, which are generated in that state in which the highest and the lowest reap in proportion to the measure of their exertions.

In comparing the different descriptions of labour, M. Ganilh is less partial to agriculture than Dr. Smith. He dwells (p. 103.) on the manifold advantages which are attendant on commercial labour, and which arise chiefly from its susceptibility of subdivision. In another passage, (p. 139.) he makes ample allowance for the improvement of labour produced by the application of machinery. He has the judgment to discard the common notion that small farms are conducive to population; and he points out (p. 139.), though not with sufficient energy, the advantage of concentrating capital and exertion in the cultivation of an extensive occupancy.—Occasionally, when his subject permits, he finds means to introduce a tone of animation to which Political Economy has seldom been deemed favourable:

‘In vain do nations exert, fatigue, and exhaust themselves in military, diplomatic, and commercial combinations, to obtain, by cunning or force, a larger or smaller share of the general wealth. Their efforts are abortive; the distribution of wealth follows the ratio of labour, manufactures and commerce; and as these obey neither force nor cunning, and only yield to equivalents, blind ambition will, necessarily, at last be obliged to submit to their peaceable rule.’—‘Wealth, produced by industry, maintains, in eighteenth-twentieths of the people, the strength, energy, and dexterity, with which man is endowed by nature, and develops, in the two remaining twentieths, those faculties of the mind which seem beyond the sphere of humanity, and bring man, as it were, nearer to the divine nature. Produced by industry, wealth banishes idleness and the vices unavoidably connected with idleness; it renders man laborious, patient, sober, economical, and adorns him with those precious qualities, the sources of individual, domestic, and social virtues.’

Our limits not permitting a full exhibition of M. Ganilh's tenets, much less any discussion of their accuracy, we must conclude with a notice of the contents of the different divisions of his book. They treat,

- I. Of Systems respecting the Origin of Wealth.
- II. — — — — — Labour.
- III. — — — — — Capital.
- IV. — — — — — the Circulation of the Produce of Labour by Commerce.
- V. Of National Income and Consumption.

The whole is followed by a clear Index, on an analytical plan.

M. Boileau had published his Introduction to Political Economy before he translated M. Ganilh's work. He candidly admits that his Introduction possesses no claim to originality, being chiefly a compilation from Professor Jacob's text-book for German universities, and from notes committed to paper in the course of his own reading. In a treatise of this description, the chief merit must consist in perspicuity and arrangement; of these qualities, a favourable presumption is afforded by the methodical plan of the present volume; and the reader who perseveres in the perusal of it will be repaid by useful, if not striking information. Those, for example, who are doubtful of the impolicy of long apprenticeships, will find a number of arguments against them condensed into the compass of a couple of pages. (pp. 211, 212.) In an earlier part, the nature of the profits of stock is explained with sufficient clearness, and in limits of very moderate extent. The praise of brevity and perspicuity is due also to other parts of the work; such as the attempt to elucidate the undecided question respecting productive and unproductive labour; as well as the less intricate principles which regulate the employment of capital in trade. Like M. Ganilh, this author divides his essay into books, which treat respectively,

- I. Of the Nature and Origin of Public Wealth.
- II. — — Increase of Public Wealth.
- III. — its Distribution.
- IV. — its Consumption.

M. Boileau regrets that a prejudice prevails against the study of Political Economy, in consequence of the name being taken in too extensive a sense. He wishes it to be separated from all consideration of politics, and to be restricted to what the Germans have recently begun to call it, "National Economy," or the laws which regulate the operation of productive labour. He appears from his preface to have in view a project of reading public

public lectures on this department of science; and this elementary treatise may perhaps have been put together with a view to promote such a purpose: but the author speaks of it with great modesty, and declares that he shall be amply satisfied if 'his compilation be accounted an useful introduction to the standard work of Dr. Smith.'

ART. XI. *Historical Sketches of Politics and Public Men*, for the Year 1812. To be continued annually. 8vo. pp. 212. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

IMPARTIALITY is so rare a feature in publications relative to the current politics of the day, that reviewers, in common with other readers, have almost ceased to expect it. Above all, they have learned to distrust the pretensions of those who usher in their works with reiterated declarations of their exemption from prejudice or party-attachment. The modesty of the notice prefixed to the volume before us was calculated to excite a different expectation, and a perusal of it has fully confirmed the favourable impression: since the writer, whoever he be, brings to his task a much larger share of information, reflection, and calm temper, than generally belongs to the authors of temporary productions. His plan will be best understood from his table of contents.

1. General View of the Character of the different Parties; — the Ministerial Party; — the Opposition; — the Popular Party.
2. Ministerial and Party Changes during the Year.
3. The Foreign Policy of Great Britain.
4. Bonaparte and the French Empire.
5. The Campaign in the Peninsula.
6. Russian Politics; — Campaign in the North.
7. America and the Orders in Council.
8. Ireland and the Catholic Question.
9. The East India Company.
10. The Question of Peace.

A spirit of deliberate inquiry and a cool judgment are conspicuous, not on some merely, but on all the topics discussed. Whether we turn to the character of Bonaparte and the question of our foreign policy; to the conduct of the war in Spain; to the domestic questions of the India Company and of Catholic-emancipation; or to the still more delicate ground of the respective merits of our political parties, we trace a writer always devoid of intentional misrepresentation, and not often liable to inaccurate conclusions. Much, however, as we approve this volume, we shall not offer to our readers any specimens of its composition; since the leading topics of dis-

cussion are fresh in the public recollection, and, in a work which is to be continued annually, the exposition of any defects which it may contain is a task of more utility than a diffuse exhibition of its merits.

In treating of the depressed state of our trade during the last three years, this writer appears (p. 173.) to lay too much stress on Bonaparte's prohibitory edicts. He does not seem to be aware that the obstructions prescribed by the letter of the French law were very frequently not enforced; and that the interval of sixteen months, from autumn 1810 to the end of 1811, was almost the only time of rigorous exclusion. The clamour raised by Bonaparte in support of the continental system was excited more with the view of extending his military occupancy, and in course the subjugation of his neighbours, than with the hope of overthrowing the trade of Great Britain. — In another point, too, the origin of conspiracies under the French government, this author does not appear to have fathomed the depths of revolutionary artifice. He believes (p. 151.) that Bonaparte was more strongly affected by the plot at Paris in October, than by the loss of his grand army. That plot, however, we considered, like the more recent conspiracies at Amsterdam and Genoa, as in a great measure promoted by the arrangements of government. With a people so much guided by appearances as the French, the display of a defeated project of insurrection is greatly calculated to strengthen the hands of the ruling power. We remember to have heard it remarked by Parisian politicians in the year 1796, that the exposure of the conspiracy of Brotier and La Villehurnois produced to the Directory as much good, and to the Royalists as much harm, as all the Italian victories of that eventful campaign. In 1804, also, we saw with what rapidity Bonaparte turned to his own account the popular impression excited by the failure of Pichegru's enterprize. It had long been a part of the Jacobin creed to have a resource of this nature in reserve for the hour of emergency. Persons against whom might be brought proofs of delinquency to a certain extent were confined, but were kept from trial until a season when it became expedient to strike terror by their punishment into their disaffected neighbours. Such, we have no doubt, was the case very recently in Holland and Italy; and if the previous disturbance at Paris was less directly the contrivance of government, it is evident that Bonaparte, on his return from Poland, expatiated on it more loudly and more frequently than the fact required. His object evidently was to draw away the attention of the French nation from the dreadful catastrophe which had befallen his military force.

With regard to domestic affairs, the chief misapprehension of this writer consists in overrating the political importance of Marquis Wellesley and Mr. Canning. In enlarging (p. 8.) on the eloquence of the latter, we are surprized that it should escape him that proficiency in public speaking is seldom accompanied by those solid acquirements which constitute real statesmen; and he who analyzes the gradual progress of the mind, and who ascertains the ungracious truth that a length of time, much beyond ordinary calculation, is necessary for the attainment of the knowledge which is indispensable to a public man, will be disposed to regret that our ministers should be obliged to pass so much time within the walls of parliament. To this cause he will trace the principal failures of Mr. Pitt, and the striking contrast between his eloquence in the senate and his powers of judging in the cabinet. — With respect to Marquis Wellesley, we should have supposed that the declaration on the part of this author, of his Lordship's repeated errors in home-transactions, (pp. 46. 53. 55.) would have produced more caution in his encomiums (p. 15.) on this nobleman's *amazing talents* as a war-minister. Those who are fond of representing a public man as foolish in one way, and wise in another, remind us of the eulogists of General Mack; who maintained, even after the overthrow at Ulm, that there was not in Europe an abler officer, for the "Plan of a Campaign." We would advise this writer to read Lord Wellesley's speech in March last, on his favourite subject, the conduct of the war in Spain; and to examine how far his Lordship's character for close inquiry, attentive comparison, or deliberate conclusion, will be raised by that elaborate harangue. At the same time we discover an equal desire of impartiality on this as on other topics; the author speaking (p. 53.) without reserve and without compliment on the motives which he conceived to actuate his favourite statesman.

We proceed to notice a few mistakes of subordinate importance. The Milan decree is represented (p. 161.) as preceding instead of following our Orders in Council. Prussia is said (p. 130.) to have been compelled to bring her *whole* military force (instead of 30,000 men) into the field against Russia. The portion of French troops withdrawn last year from Spain was greatly short of the 56,000 mentioned in p. 130.; and the junction of Marshal Victor to Bonaparte, after the battle of Borodino, took place only in our newspapers. Wittgenstein's offensive operations in October were directed, not as it is said (p. 142) on Moscow, but to the obstruction, by all possible means, of the retreat of Bonaparte's army. — We cannot coincide with this author in giving our late ministers

crédit

credit for a conciliatory disposition, as to the impressment of seamen from American ships; since they were perfectly aware that our naval officers were in the habit of impressing American citizens, but never chose to attach any penalty to the commission of this dangerous irregularity. The recall of Admiral Berkeley and the mission of Mr. Rosé, after the affair of the Chesapeake frigate, were caused much less by the moderation attributed (p. 168.) to our cabinet, than by a desire to prevent the American nation from rising up, as one man, against our Orders in Council.

After these animadversions, we return to the more welcome task of expressing our approbation of the merits of this writer; whose style is clear, correct, and frequently elegant. Were the majority of new publications composed with the perspicuity and method which are exhibited in this work, the task of reviewing would be incomparably more attractive. In the conclusion, the question of peace is treated very briefly, but with the same good sense which is manifested in discussing the claims of the India Company, and of the Irish Catholics. The familiarity of most of the subjects, and the calm tone of the composition, may convey to some readers the impression of want of novelty or energy; but they who take time to weigh the author's arguments, and appreciate his reasoning, will be inclined to form a very different conclusion.

ART. XII. *A cursory Inquiry into the Expediency of repealing the Annuity-Act, and raising the legal Rate of Interest; in a Series of Letters.* By Edward Burtenshaw Sugden, Esq., of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 60. 2s. 6d. Murray.

THOSE fortunate individuals among his Majesty's subjects, who conduct their money-matters with such prudence as to stand in no need of borrowing, may be at a loss to know what is meant by the Annuity-Act, cited so familiarly in Mr. Sugden's title page: to such persons, then, be it known that this kingdom includes a great number of men who, being unable to borrow money at the legal rate of interest, are willing to go for a time considerably beyond it. They are partly in and partly out of trade; engaged generally in the pursuit of objects which they expect will return them the money laid out with a large profit; and sometimes desirous, without any such expectation, of buying the means of present accommodation by mortgaging a part of their income. As the law imposes no limit on the rate of interest in the case of a perishable security, the ordinary expedient of needy people has been to accomplish a loan by engaging to pay a life-annuity at a high rate. The life

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in question may be either that of the lender or the borrower, or of any third person named by the lender; or, a plurality of lives being seldom objectionable, the annuity may be made payable during the life of any two or three persons named by the lender. The addition of one or two lives makes very little difference in the yearly rate, because these contracts generally give the borrower a power of redemption; and few men incur such disadvantageous debts without the intention of speedily getting out of them by repayment of the principal.

The members of our Houses of Lords and Commons, knowing very little more of the difficult questions involved in the limitation of interest than that a definite point had been fixed by law, thought that the best plan was to make individuals act up as closely as possible to the statute. It never occurred to our legislators forty years ago (and we apprehend that it hardly does now) to regard the compulsory limitation of the rate of interest as fundamentally impolitic, and as the work of an age very little acquainted with the principles of trade. We can trace, therefore, no attempts on the part of parliament to open the rate of interest generally, but very decisive efforts to modify the practice of borrowing on annuity. The most remarkable of these was the act of 1777, commonly called the *Annuity-Act*; the chief provisions of which are; 1. That a memorial of every annuity-transaction shall be enrolled in the High Court of Chancery, containing the date, the names of the parties, and the conditions of the contract. 2. If from any cause the full sum has not been paid up by the lender, the deed may be cancelled by the Court. 3. No contract is valid with a person under twenty-one years of age. 4. Annuities of several kinds are excepted from the operation of this act, such as annuities or rent-charges given by will or marriage-settlement, or granted by corporate bodies, or under any trust created by act of parliament, or below the sum of 10*l*.

Such is the substance of the *Annuity-Act*. At the time of its passing into a bill, a parliamentary committee was appointed to take into consideration the important question of giving the borrower, in all cases, the power of putting an end to his unprofitable contract, by repaying the principal. Though it was not judged fit to incorporate a resolution to that effect into a law, the right appeared so clear that the courts of justice have made a rule to support it on almost every occasion; and it has now become a common clause in such contracts that the borrower shall be at liberty to redeem. One of the chief objects of the Act was to discourage these annuities by the publicity attendant on an official enrolment; an intention which was very soon defeated by the great number of transactions which

which continued to take place. In reality, the enrolment, as far as it had any effect, was conducive to the increase of annuity-business, by affording the lender an authenticated list of previous incumbrances.

The Annuity-Act may therefore be called an acknowledgement that annuity-contracts, however high the terms, are obligatory in the eye of the law: but it accompanies this acknowledgement with a general stigma on the principle of such transactions. The latter consideration weighing greatly with our courts of law, contracts were often set aside on merely verbal objections, the proof of fraud being by no means requisite; and the consequences were an extraordinary number of litigations, no act in the statute-book having been more productive in that way. Among such a multitude, it has often happened that the courts, though inclined on general grounds towards the borrower, have decided, in consequence of particular circumstances, in favour of the lender. When the case is otherwise, and the securities are declared void, it must not be inferred that the lender has lost his money; he has lost only the benefit of his contract, and he may sue the borrower for the original loan *minus* the annual payments received. The horrors of litigation, however, are such as to deter respectable men from embarking much of their property in these loans; so that the unfortunate borrower is circumscribed in his resources, and must pay a higher rate to those who are willing to come forwards. The intended kindness of the courts of justice is thus productive of serious injury to him; much in the same way as the law's delay in the West Indies, which was meant as a protection to the borrower, proves eventually a disadvantage to him by operating to the discouragement of loans. It is clear, therefore, says Mr. Sugden, that the intention of the Act has been defeated, and that the public would be better without it. He proceeds to recommend (pp. 31, 32.) the adoption of several correcting clauses; on which, without entering into detail, we shall merely remark that we agree with him that the main object of all laws on the subject should be to extend protection to the borrower, without encouraging him to litigation.

Mr. Sugden has made an attempt to calculate the number of annuities enrolled in pursuance of the Act. Those who found their estimates of national wealth on our Custom-house returns, and who believe with Messrs. George Rose and George Chalmers that we have been for many years on the high road to prosperity, will be rather surprised to learn that there are on record, since 1777, 80,000 cases of money borrowed on life-annuities at a most disadvantageous rate of interest. This is another reason

reason and a most cogent one for correcting such provisions in our acts of parliament, or such rules in the practice of our courts, as are found to operate to the disadvantage of so numerous a class of persons. One of the consequences of the ill-judged leaning in the law towards the borrower is to make the lender fortify himself with almost every security that can be obtained; — a warrant of attorney, with a judgment entered on it, (documents never desired in the case of a regular loan,) being commonly required with an annuity, and all is at the charge of the distressed borrower. — We have used, for the sake of clearness, the words borrower and lender, the transaction being virtually a loan, though in form it is the purchase of an annuity of which the borrower of the money is styled the *grantor*, and the lender the *grantee*. It is proper to add that the power, or, to use the law-term, the *equity* of redemption, which is now formally vested in the borrower, was always virtually at his option, in consideration of a small *bonus* to the lender. This, as well as a variety of circumstances connected with the subject, is mentioned in the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons in 1777; (Vol. xxxvi. of the *Journals of the House*, p. 489.) an able document, and fully explanatory of the heavy expence attending the system of borrowing on annuity.

From the subject of annuities, Mr. Sugden proceeds to one of still greater importance, — the legal rate of interest. It was first fixed in this country (37 Henry VIII.) at ten per cent., which was probably below the current rate. In the preceding reign of Edward VI., it was declared, in a fit of legislative liberality, illegal to take any interest whatever: but the absurdity of this law becoming apparent, the legality of taking interest was again established in the time of Elizabeth, and ten per cent. was the rate fixed. Under James I., in 1628, interest was reduced to 8 per cent.; under Charles II., in 1672, it was farther reduced to 6 per cent.; and, finally, in 1714, after the conclusion of the peace of Utrecht, it was brought down to its present standard of 5 per cent. That it has not been brought lower is to be attributed to the operation of the funding system, and the eagerness for prolonged warfare which this system has engendered. To limit the rate of interest by law has been a favourite object with most governments, under the impression, sufficiently natural to superficial inquirers, that this limitation would tend to lower the customary rate, and conduce to the advantage of trade. It was also accounted a safeguard against improvident borrowing. To those who wish to ascertain the futility of these arguments, and to see the whole subject most amply discussed, we would recommend a perusal

perusal of Mr. Bentham's masterly treatise, published under the unfortunate title of a "Defence of Usury." * As we have not space for entering into the question at large, we shall make only two general remarks: 1st, that the limitation of interest by the legislature should not be formed on the lowest customary rate, or it will put an end to all open borrowing, except on first-rate security; and, 2d, that, as money *must* be borrowed, all the burden of the risk and expence incurred in evading the law must eventually fall on the borrower, and therefore the law which was intended for his protection becomes an instrument of oppression to him.

It is not so generally known as it ought to be, that the rate of customary interest in this country is higher than it was half a century ago. We hear no more now of offers on the part of government to pay off our national debt, unless the stockholders consent to a reduction of the interest. When Dr. Smith wrote, it was customary to lend money to government at so low a rate as three or four per cent., and to individuals at four or four and a half. To say, therefore, that the legal rate should not exceed five was no great hardship: but, in the present day, the case is widely different. 'It is,' says Mr. Sugden, 'an undeniable fact, that money is not now to be had on unexceptionable security at five per cent.' When it happens to be so lent, it proceeds from one of the following circumstances, — personal friendship to the borrower, or a direction to executors to invest on mortgage; or, finally, from the sale of an estate with an agreement to let part of the money remain for a given time on it. How can we expect the case to be otherwise, when government offers five per cent., and with a security not only of high estimation as to solidity, but convertible into money at an hour's notice? The consequence is that a large commission is usually paid by land-holders to any agent who is able to accomplish a loan for him at five per cent. Mr. Sugden adverts to an instance in which 1000l. were offered to an agent to procure a loan of 17,000l.; and another in which 100l. were offered to procure a loan of 2000l.; the security in both cases being unexceptionable. It has also become customary to stipulate privately that the property-tax shall be paid by the borrower, notwithstanding the law to the contrary; and, 'though it may startle some,' says Mr. Sugden, 'to hear it, instances are not wanting of money being raised at an annuity of ten per cent. on three lives, on unincumbered free simple estates of great annual value.'

* See M. R. Vol. lxxviii. p. 361.

All these circumstances shew that things are materially altered within the last sixty years; and that the interest of five per cent. is no longer that limit which corresponds with the intention of the legislature. Now let us add a few words as to the remedy. 'I shall not,' says Mr. Sugden, 'contend, because I know it would be useless, in behalf of the liberty of making one's own terms in money bargains, nor indeed could I hope to add any thing to Mr. Bentham's able and ingenious arguments. What I suggest is only that the rate of interest be altered. This the legislature has frequently done, and if circumstances required it formerly to be lowered, they now require it to be raised. To place borrowers on the same footing as a century or half a century ago, the legislative limit should now be *seven* per cent.' Such a proposition, the author is aware, is calculated to wound our national pride, and to alarm some well-intentioned persons among us: but its adoption would in fact make little alteration with regard to existing contracts at five per cent. An Act to this effect would have very little influence on the price of stocks; and, if that vast body of securities remains unaffected, we may safely calculate that others will do the same. 'To say that interest *may* be raised to seven per cent. does not imply that it *will* be so raised. In former years, when money was abundant, though five per cent. might lawfully be taken, it was not actually obtained. On the contrary, the power of taking it was exercised only as a spur to prompt payment, it being usual to provide that four per cent., if regularly paid, should be accepted in lieu of the five reserved. These are facts, says Mr. Sugden, perfectly known to persons who are in the habit of looking over titles. A man may lawfully take any rent for his house, yet he can get no more than the market-rate: neither could he get seven per cent. for his money if five and a half were the current interest.

What, then, it may be asked, would be the practical effect of augmenting the limited rate of interest? It would have no influence on the stocks, and very little on landed securities of the first character, but it would afford great facilities to those who borrow on inferior security. By making it lawful and respectable for capitalists to take a higher interest, it would widely extend the circle of accommodation to the man who can offer the pledge of only a life-tenure, a reversion, or a leasehold estate. It would also put an end to the circuitous and expensive plan of annuity-contracts, and enable the borrower to get for seven per cent. that for which he must now pay nine or ten.—Aware of the host of prejudice in favour of the present limitation of interest, Mr. Sugden suggests, as a more qualified measure,

measure, that a distinction should be made between different kinds of securities; and that, while the interest on the first class remains unaltered, it be rendered legal to give seven or eight per cent. on the second-rate-securities mentioned above. A provision of this nature is so equitable in principle, and so strongly required by present circumstances, that we are disposed to conclude that it will engage the attention of government as soon as a season of leisure arrives. It would accomplish the relief of a very numerous class of persons, and would form an approximation to the ultimate measure, — an abolition of restraint on the rate of interest generally. Years must elapse before the British public will be prepared for the adoption of a proposition so much at variance with their favourite notions; and this change, like others, should be made by degrees: but, come when it may, we have little doubt of its proving highly beneficial, and productive of advantage in various ways of which those who regard it as a mere abstract question have no idea.

Mr. Sugden's style partakes considerably of the *pro's* and *con's* of his profession; and the reader is sometimes puzzled with a string of arguments, when he would have preferred that the author had restricted to his own mind the review of the particulars, and had recorded only the conclusion. The value of the matter, however, compensates for the want of care in the composition, and gives this little tract a claim to the attention both of government and the public. It has been divided, as all such essays ought to be, into sections; each having its specific object, agreeably to the indication in the prefixed table of contents. We have already had occasion to mention Mr. Sugden with encomium, (Vol. lx. p. 203., and Vol. lxii. p. 214.) and the present pamphlet will be found fully as interesting as his former performances.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, For AUGUST, 1813.

EDUCATION.

Art. 13. *Elements of Universal Geography, ancient and modern*, containing a Description of the Boundary, Chief Cities, Sea Ports, Rivers, Mountains, Religion, Population, Climate, Historical Events, &c. &c., of the several Countries, States, &c., in the known World: to which are added, Historical, Classical, and Mythological Notes, by A. Picquot. 12mo. pp. 312. 5s. 6d. Lackington and Co. 1812.

M. Picquot apologizes for verbal inaccuracies, by stating that he writes for the first time in a language not his own; and he thus not only

only accounts for some quaint expressions, but excites our surprise at the general propriety of his style. His book offers considerable information; and the Synopsis of Antient Geography is ingenious, though in course somewhat conjectural. Too much is perhaps attempted at once; and the mixture of history and mythology with the geographical lessons may confuse those who attempt to commit the whole to memory.

Art. 14. *The School Cyphering Book, for Beginners*; containing all the Variety of Sums and Questions usually proposed in the first five Rules of Arithmetic; viz. Notation, Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication, and Division. With a complete Set of Arithmetical Tables. By Joseph Guy, Author of a "Pocket Cyclopaedia," "School Geography," &c. &c. 4to. 3s. 6d. Boards. Cradock and Joy. 1811.

This seems to be a plain useful cyphering book; and the questions to be resolved at the end of each rule are well selected. Mr. Guy's method of furnishing printed sums to beginners will certainly save trouble. A *Key* to this book is published, and may be purchased separately.

Art. 15. *The Geographical Primer*; designed for the younger Classes of Learners, and calculated to advance them by natural and easy Gradations to a perfect Acquaintance with the Elements of the Science; with an Appendix, containing 1400 Questions on the principal Maps. By J. H. Wiffen. 12mo. pp. 216. Darton, junior. 1812.

These lessons, being concise, are advisable for young beginners; and it may be considered as an improvement that, in naming the principal cities and towns in England, the rivers are also mentioned, on which several of those places are situated: as 'Chester on the Dee,' 'Reading on the Thames,' (and Kenilworth,) &c.: but we were surprised to see that the *Liffey* is omitted among the rivers of Ireland.

Art. 16. *The New Young Man's Companion*; or the Youth's Guide to general Knowledge, designed chiefly for the Benefit of private Persons of both Sexes, and adapted to the Capacities of Beginners. By John Hornsey, Author of "A short Grammar of the English Language," &c. &c. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

An useful compendium of information on various subjects, of which a part is original, and the rest is judiciously chosen from other works. The student, however, would be led into a slight breach of *etiquette* if he addressed a letter to 'The Honourable Sir A. B., Bart.,' or to 'The Honourable Sir A. B., Knight,' in compliance with Mr. Hornsey's directions in page 79., Baronets and Knights not being *consequently* Honorable.

POETRY.

Art. 17. *The Russian Chiefs*, an Ode. 4to. 5s. Booth. 1813.

The hand of genius, and the *incuria* of genius, are alike discoverable in this Ode; which is said to be the production of a gentleman who stands high in the profession of the law, and who is equally distinguished by his devotion to polite literature. It has been ob-

served that an *epitaph* is defective, if it contain not the name of the person whose death it commemorates; and by the same rule that *ode* may be deemed wanting, which no where designates the warrior-chiefs whom its title professes to celebrate. A few passages are also marked by an obscurity which we cannot penetrate; and which is in part owing to a redundancy and impropriety of punctuation that prevails throughout. The ingenious writer probably left this office of the pen to his printer, agreeing with too many in erroneously regarding it as insignificant*; and the consequence is that he is made to commit a fault in print, with which we understand he is least of all men chargeable in conversation; viz. to *stutter* in almost every line: for such is the effect of the punctuation, if it be followed in reading this Ode.† The numerous annotations afford ample proof of the author's reading and classical recollections; and the whole poem is an evidence of those high-spirited and patriotic feelings, which lead every true Briton to enlogize the great and successful efforts of our northern allies in repelling the invader of their native soil. The horrors of the late Russian campaign were indeed so uncommon, the elements of nature combining with all the powers of war to hurl destruction on the foe, that they must "harrow up the soul" even when related in plain prose; and the Pindaric boldness of the poet before us is so far not necessary to "freeze the young blood," though the theme be worthy of the highest flights of the Muse.

We copy a few lines:—first, from the opening:

Oh, for the animated vein,
That strung the arm, and broke the chain,
Of Liberty oppress,
When from the voice, and from the lyre,
Tyrtaeus, with electric fire,
Inflam'd the warrior's breast!
Were mine, the bard's prophetic views,
Who sung to Thebes,—no flatt'ring muse,—
The Persian flight, and shame,
Like him, to mercenary fear,
To the cold heart, and servile ear,
I'd swell the hero's fame.
Avengers of the arm enslav'd,
Of rights oppress, of judgments brav'd,
Put on your glowing wreath!
When cold in earth, your hand, shall rest,
Your spirit, shall in visions blest,
From death's pale ashes, breathe.

* It is not by negligencies of this kind that celebrity is either gained or supported: nor is it thus

——“Great wits may *gloriously* offend,
And *rise* to faults true critics dare not mend.”

† Some peculiarities in *language* also are discernible. For example, p. 14., the præterite *marki*, and p. 15., the participle *worshipi*, are not sanctioned by use.

In other days, the North, could light,
 With savage, and barbarian might,
 A desolating flame;
 But now, the champion of the just,
 She lifts the injur'd from the dust,
 And brands a tyrant's name.'

In proceeding, the author aptly compares the irruption of Bonaparte into Russia to the invasion of Greece by Xerxes:

' Time, has again of Xerxes heard,
 What impious piles the madman rear'd,
 Anticipating Fate;
 Has markt the fear, that wing'd his flight,
 And left in Freedom's awful sight
 His throne's imperial state —
 I see the tyrant, foil'd, and stung,
 From all his tow'ring summits flung,
 The maniac of despair,
 Gnash his fell teeth, when sword, and spear,
 Threw all his battle into fear,
 Nor chief, nor king, would spare.
 The despot fled,—a coward slave,—
 Breath, of dishonour'd life, to save,
 And lost in abject flight;
 But Conscience, on a Persian throne,
 Could mark the victim, as her own,
 With scorpions of the night;—
 For ages, that sublime event,
 The doubt* of tyrants underwent,
 By them, a fable deem'd;
 But you, have made Plataea known;
 The field of Marathon's your own,
 And Fame has been redeem'd.'

The propriety of calling Bonaparte a *coward*, in this passage, and elsewhere, may well be questioned: though he fled, flight is not *always* cowardly; nor was his the flight of an ordinary commander, who might justly choose to share the fate of his army. We should have expected that, in this comparison to Xerxes, the learned author would not have overlooked the parallel of the Persian monarch's retreat over the Hellespont in a fishing vessel, with that of the French Emperor over deserts of snow in a solitary sledge.

* What is meant here is, that a tyrant would of course wish to disbelieve a fact, so hostile to him in his influence upon the tenure of his claim to aggrandizement by invasions; and that he would find, in the detail of these events, a colour for incredulity; as they baffle every modern conception of political arithmetic. The main fact, is unquestioned.'

Art. 18. *The Deliverance of the North*, or the Russian Campaign : a Poem. Published by the Author for the Benefit of the Russian Sufferers. 8vo. pp. 24. Baldwin.

Twelve months ago, it was not expected that Don-Cossacks and Russian Generals would be sung in British verse, and that the flight of Bonaparte would be the subject of caricatures in our printsellers' shop-windows. Yet much is now hoped from the success of the Russians, combined with the brilliant victories obtained by our army in the Peninsula ; and the present year is evidently big with great events. The poem before us, however, is not so much prophetic as retrospective. It describes the vast preparations of the French Ruler for the invasion of Russia, his march and bloody conflicts with the Russians, his disappointed hopes by the burning of Moscow, the mortal effects of ' *bivouâcing* midst driving snow,' the disasters and precipitate retreat of his troops, the hovering of clouds of Cossacks on his rear, the loss of his horses and cannon, and last of all his own flight from the scene of carnage, desolation, and petrifying cold :

' So toils the furious Corsican ; enrag'd
To find his host surrounded, and himself
In danger of captivity ; but fear
Succeeds to frenzy, flight succeeds to fear ;
Swift from the field he rushes, and deserts
His hapless followers, suffering for his pride
Extreme of woe ; basely abandons those
Who fought and bled his triumphs to advance,
To glut the vengeance of an injur'd foe.—'

The final address to the nations of Europe, on the result of the Russian campaign, may be quoted as a fair sample of the blank verse which is exhibited on the present occasion :

' Hear, all ye nations, mark the grand result
Of such vast preparations to o'erturn
A mighty empire : — vanish'd as a dream,
Of all that numerous army, but remains
The shadow and the name ; the trembling chief
Takes for his trophies and triumphal car
A servile habit and a paltry sledge :
In mean disguise he flees, his fate becomes
A warning to the proud ones of the earth,
That dire ambition is accursed of God ;
And that her giddy cloud-capp'd pinnacle
Nods o'er the gulphs of ruin and disgrace.'

From the popularity of the subject, some little defects of composition will be overlooked ; since readers will not catch at faults when they are previously resolved to be pleased.

Art. 19. *A Metrical History of England* ; or, Recollections in Rhyme, of some of the most prominent Features in our National Chronology, from the Landing of Julius Cæsar, to the Commence-
ment

ment of the Regency in 1812. By Thomas Dibdin, Author of "The Jew and the Doctor," &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Beards. Longman and Co. 1813.

This is neither an useless nor an unpleasing compilation; and we recommend it to the notice of those guardians and instructors of children who deem it expedient to add artificial allurements to the natural charm of history. Indeed, it must be confessed that a taste for historical knowledge is not so general as it should be among the younger students of the day. They have been sickened with novels before they have fed on sounder food; and, whether from this or from more general causes, it has become necessary in numerous cases for the teacher to adopt factitious means of exciting an inclination, which we have called *natural* from feeling that it ought to be so. Since, then, we are of opinion that, in the instruction of boys and girls at an early age, it may be our duty to *tempt* many pupils in the present times to the study of history, (all attractive as it should be of itself, and without any such *temptation*,) we cannot but approve of Mr. Dibdin's endeavours to facilitate the attainment of so desirable an end.

Having bestowed this praise on the design of versifying an abridged history of our country, we must, however, find fault with the execution of that design in a great number of passages. Many proper names are pronounced *improperly*; and a low buffoonery and a dull species of punning pervade the two volumes. Yet we will not dwell on this defect. Those who allow that we may "laugh and be wise" must not be captious in their censure of that mode of information which prefers not only wit to judgment, but humour to wit. Mr. Dibdin's 'Metrical History of England,' in a word, is an amplification of the well-known "Chapter of Kings;" but it is something more. From Andrews, and from other collectors of anecdotes, he has compiled a very amusing miscellany of historical narrative; and if he sometimes indulges in too *broad a grin*, and on other occasions writes neither sense nor English, yet on the whole he conveys much instruction to the boyish reader in a very lively manner.

Art. 20. *Hours of Loyalty; or Allegorical Political Delineations in Rhyme*. By William Harvey. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ebers. 1813.

'It is the imperative duty of every man,' says Mr. Harvey, 'to dedicate a portion of his time to his country. It's demand supercedes even the apologetical subterfuge of domestic anxiety,' &c.—In illustration of this already luminous remark, Mr. H. proceeds, through several pages of prose and verse, (differing only in the manner of their printing,) to dedicate his hours of loyalty to Old England:

' "Zounds! what's the news," cries Johnny Bull,
 "Dear me, the paper seems quite full:
 Give me my glasses, wife, let's see,
 Pray, what the Devil can it be?
 Lord Wellington has beat the French!"' &c.

—a truism with which we are very happy to conclude.

NOVELS.

- Art. 21. *The Sisters, a Domestic Tale.* By the Author of "The Officer's Widow and Family," &c. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

In this narrative, the principal female is rendered interesting by her moral qualities, but she is described as being precluded by ill health and deformity from becoming an object of the *tender passion*. Though such a subject may not be popular, because human nature revolts from those representations which militate against its general rules, yet the story affords an useful lesson; it encourages us to act well from the best motives; and it shews the good which may be accomplished notwithstanding personal defects and debility, and the happiness which attends on disinterested benevolence.

- Art. 22. *Demetrius, a Russian Romance.* 12mo. 2 Vols. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

A tolerably interesting tale, founded on the story of Demetrius Ivanovitch, as related in Coxe's Travels. The leading character is well drawn: but the females in the groupe are not very pleasing, and the tender scenes are exaggerated and unnatural. The work, however, contains much good writing and ingenious disquisition; and the author's strict adherence to the narrative which he has chosen for his subject should be imitated by all writers of historical romance.

POLITICS.

- Art. 23. *A clear, fair, and candid Investigation of the Population, Commerce, and Agriculture of this Kingdom,* with a full Refutation of all Mr. Malthus's Principles; proving from infallible Documents that our Population is rapidly decreasing, from the high Price of Grain and the long and unfortunate War; and if not remedied, England may fall. Also shewing the Impolicy of the late Corn Bill, and that the high Price of Grain has been the Cause of the late Blights. 8vo. pp. 168. 3s. 6d. Mawman.

Veteran reviewers are apt to draw unfavourable conclusions of a book from a long and diffuse title-page; and in the present case, the apprehension is confirmed to a great extent, as far as it regards carelessness and inaccurate composition: without, however, taking away the claim of the author to attention on the ground of fact and argument. The leading features of the publication are in opposition to the views and conclusions of Mr. Malthus, and to the principle of our corn-laws; and the reader who perseveres in a perusal of the tract, in spite of bad grammar, and sometimes even bad spelling, will find a variety of pithy arguments in both departments of the subject. The author mentions (p. 65.) that the rise of rent-rolls, in consequence of an augmented price of corn, is merely nominal, since the expenditure of the farmer and the landholder must increase in a correspondent ratio. In the days of King William, he says, something like a specious plea might be urged for discouraging the importation of foreign corn: but at present, when our improvements in agriculture have gone so far, and our prices continue so high, an increase in the tax on foreign provisions would prove a great national misfortune. While we fully

agree

agree with him as to the impolicy of the principle of our corn-laws, it is due to impartial reasoning to admit that, of late years, these laws had but little practical effect; and to state that, as prices, in consequence of the war, have been constantly above the standard limited in these obnoxious acts, their provisions have operated very little in discouraging arrivals from abroad. The war has equally answered the purpose of the landholder, and has raised our markets as high as these enhancing edicts would have carried them, or indeed higher. Had we been blessed with peace, the result, we confess, would have been very different. Under these impressions, we cannot congratulate the country too warmly on the defeat of the late attempt in parliament to create a most pernicious addition to the difficulties attendant on the supply of foreign corn.

The objections of this writer to Mr. Malthus are various, and are urged in a long succession of particular statements and calculations. He accuses him (p. 24.) of taking an unjustifiable latitude in his conclusions, and in a subsequent passage (p. 59.) he asserts that 'Mr. M. has so often changed his principles since he first wrote that it is hard to collect what he really does or means to say.' Such accusations, whether well or ill founded, would come with a better grace, if delivered in grammatical language. We have in p. 62. the expression, 'reports which *was* not drawn up by government;' in p. 128. 'observations which *says*;' and in p. 126. *et seqq.* Mr. Spence, of pamphleteering memory, is regularly introduced under the more illustrious name of Spencer. A great part of the tract is made up of quotations from other works, such as (p. 130.) the long statement of Dutch taxation, and (p. 69.) the extract from Pinkney's Travels, explanatory of the condition of the French peasantry.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 24. *Sermons on various Subjects, and Letters to an Undergraduate at the University*, by the late Rev. William Alphonsus Gunn. To which are prefixed Memoirs of his Life. By Isaac Saunders, A. M. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Mathews and Leigh. 1812.

The press is gorged with biography, and all bounds of discretion are transgressed in this department of literature. Every good man who dies is not intitled to have his life written; and it is a waste of paper to swell out an octavo volume with long letters of no particular interest, which passed between obscure individuals. Mr. Gunn was certainly a well-meaning and pious clergyman: but the incidents of his life were too few, and of too ordinary a nature, to justify a memoir extending through 245 pages. From his youth he had a serious turn, and his education was of a nature which fitted him for the ministry. After having been an usher at Farnham, he took orders, and preached as a curate there: but, not being acceptable to the congregation, he was superseded, on which circumstance his biographer remarks, 'He ceased to blow the Gospel trumpet in Farnham for ever.' Being invited to the lectureship of St. Mary Somersets, in London, he removed to that parish, and preached with success, as what is called an evangelical minister; but, being of a weak con-

stitution, and living too abstemiously on account of his small income, his health gave way, and he fell into a premature grave, December 5. 1806, in the 47th year of his age. The letters which constitute the bulk of the memoir are in a highly Methodistic strain, and, as we should say, are not in good taste; to some readers, however, they may be very savory. They contain such passages as these: 'I can do nothing, and hope for nothing but from the blood and righteousness of Christ: if I have any holiness I get it by drawing out of his fullness': I trust that you are a loyal subject to King Jesus, and then you will be one to King George.' Speaking of an old sermon, he says, 'you may rummage for it when the Lord brings you to my abode;' and in another place he talks of 'our Jesus,' as if his sect had monopolized the Saviour of the world. 'Imputed righteousness was my refuge:—I found that I had none of my own;' and he thus concludes one of the letters, 'I commend you to the everlasting protection of the Lord the Trinity.'

As Mr. Gunn was a zealous Calvinist, the fifteen sermons which constitute the remainder of this volume are of a similar complexion. The subjects are, Faith, as an operative Principle;—Christ the Deliverer from Condemnation;—the True Worshiper;—Searching the Scriptures;—Holiness;—the Christian's Life;—Crucifying the Lusts of the Flesh;—Christ, the true Shepherd;—the happy Consequences of Christ's Ascension;—the Danger of Self-deception in Religion;—Growth in Grace;—Devotedness to God;—the blessed Effects of true Religion;—Joshua's Farewell.

Art. 25. *Dissertations on the regenerate Life*; in Harmony with the theological Views of Baron Swedenborg, the undoubted Messenger of Our Lord's second Advent. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Hodson. 1812.

To the initiated, the language of Swedenborg and his disciples may be very luminous: but we honestly confess that to us it is as dark as Erebus. To avoid the possibility of misrepresenting the author of these dissertations, we shall let him speak for himself; and if our readers can understand him, they have an advantage over us:

'The pride of self-intelligence nurtured by the self-love of man, falls into degrees of life more and more remote, or into dense and denser shades; the reciprocity of the human mind can only be adequate to its state, those commandments which were engraved on the hearts of the men of the celestial church, and which were retained in the understanding and affectionate minds of the men of the spiritual church, were delivered by the hand of Jehovah himself on tables of stone to the Israelitish church, that they might remain in indelible characters on the memory, might at once confirm their divine autho-

* It is common with persons of Mr. Gunn's sect ostentatiously to disclaim all *power*, as if they were so many stocks or stones; yet it almost always happens that, in the very sentence in which they deny the possibility of their being agents, they *assert agency*. Thus, while Mr. G. declares he can *do nothing*, he talks of *drawing*. Is *drawing out of the Divine fullness* doing nothing? To beings without power, exhortations, whether delivered in letters or sermons, are truly ridiculous.

city, and discover the very low state of reciprocity to which man had fallen.'—

'Manifestation must ever be according to reciprocity, the divine influx therefore to the devout recipient since the incarnation must differ from the divine influx through the heavens prior to the incarnation: it is ever from highest to lowest principles in successive order, but that order having been broken by the posterity of the celestial church, the efficacy of the divine influx at this day, from the divine human, is with restorative power, from highest to the lowest fallen degrees in man, even to the most ultimate, that a regenerated man may be no more liable as at first to recede from love.'

A section on the State of Marriage in the Spiritual and Celestial Church contains this passage:

'In the spiritual church or state, the husband represents, and is, truth progressively advancing to goodness; the wife represents, and is, the love of His truth or progressive wisdom, and heightens the affection of her partner towards her, in the degree that she loves the wisdom which he pursues and unfolds. In the celestial state, when truth has reached its destination in goodness, or the supreme love of the Lord, the wife, elevated to the same love, no longer represents the love of man's wisdom; but becomes the more beautiful form, manifestation, or truth of his love. In the prior state, the husband loved the representative form of the affection of the wisdom which he sought; in the latter state, he is more strongly attracted to the more beautiful representation of the form of his love. Thus is the affection of each celestial partner exalted by an organization out of itself, through which there is a more delightful sensation of the supreme love, from which true conjugal love is an emanation.'

He who wishes for more of this instruction, which unfortunately fails to instruct us, may turn to the Dissertations.

Art. 26. *The Errors of Universalism; or the Doctrine of the Non-Eternity of Future Punishments, contrary to Scripture and dangerous to Society.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

Fie on it! Fie on it! Must the rectitude and mercy of the Divine Being be destroyed to keep mankind in order? Detested be the thought that it is dangerous to society to exhibit a correct view of God's moral attributes. After having recognized the Deity as a God of love, can we tolerate the belief that he punishes frail man *to all eternity*? We may assure ourselves that we are erroneous interpreters of Scripture, when we employ it for the blasphemous purpose of proving that the God and Father of our Lord Jesus Christ is unjust. This radical and unanswerable objection lies against the doctrine of eternal punishments, that, if punishments be made eternal, the Divine Government must choose them as *an end* and not as *means*; not as *remedies*, but *for their own sake*. Now, as this is absolutely impossible, it is as absurd to quote the word *eternal** when

* How would this writer laugh at the man who was to adduce "the everlasting hills" of Gen. xlix. 26. in proof of the eternal duration of the world.

joined to the word punishments, in some passages of Scripture, in order to prove their absolute eternal duration, as it is to adduce the phrase, "this is my body," to establish the tenet of transubstantiation. When an impossibility presents itself in the literal meaning, sound reason requires us to adopt a qualified sense. Let this suffice for a reply to the present writer's argument deduced from passages of Scripture. He contends for an impossibility. He urges the word of God to subvert the perfections of God.—Now for his position that a denial of the eternity of hell-torments 'is productive of the most dangerous effects.' How is this made out? It is effected by proving, or rather by labouring to prove, that 'Universalism deprives its disciples of the use of the Bible, as a *certain rule of faith*, and that by weakening the grand distinctions between right and wrong, it saps the foundations of *morality*.' The writer will probably call this argument: but in our estimation it is downright nonsense. Must the foundations of morality be sapped, unless the Deity be represented as less amiable and more unjust than his creatures?

Art. 27. *Complete Religious Liberty vindicated.* A Letter to a Friend in the Country, respecting the Petition for the Abolition of all Penal Statutes in Matters of Religion, unanimously voted by the Dissenting Ministers of London and Westminster, at Red-Cross-street Library, Feb. 2. 1813; with Remarks on the extraordinary Correspondence between the Rev. Joseph Ivimey and J. Butterworth, Esq., M.P. for Coventry. With a parting Word to Mr. Ivimey; and a Postscript relative to the Propagation of the Gospel in India. By John Evans, A.M. 8vo. 1s. Sherwood and Co.

We have heard of country-farmers who have been very alert in asserting their own right of common, and not less active in contriving to exclude their brethren from the same privilege. These *terra filii* may in some measure be excused such narrowness of mind, but we must reprobate this temper when it ferments in the bosom of any professed friends of religious liberty. Among the *sancta cohors comitum* who met at the Dissenting Library in Red-Cross-street, to petition the Legislature for perfect religious liberty, Mr. Ivimey makes a miserable figure; and Mr. Evans, in this pamphlet, has not been severer on him than he seems to have deserved. Could any thing be more mean and despicable than to object to the presentation of a petition to Parliament for the abolition of all penal statutes in matters of religion, because possibly such a petition, if presented by Protestant Dissenters at this juncture, might be of use to the Catholics, who are addressing the Legislature on the same grounds? Mr. Butterworth appears to have been led into an error by the mis-statement of his correspondent Mr. Ivimey: but, had he been less eager in stepping forwards to throw cold water on the generous efforts of the friends of religious liberty, he would have acted more in character as a Dissenter. Even supposing that perfect *unanimity* had not prevailed at Red-Cross-street, (but this was not the case,) we cannot think that Mr. Butterworth was justified in his effort to invalidate

the

the object of the petition ; for a measure may be excellent, though not carried unanimously. Indeed the best and wisest schemes will be opposed by the bigoted, wrong-headed, and malignant. Mr. Evans argues well on the subject of religious liberty : but it is unnecessary to follow him over this beaten ground ; and we conclude that Mr. Ivimey will be taught by this wholesome admonition not to sin a second time.

Art. 28. *A Reformed Communion Office for the Administration of the Christian Eucharist*, commonly called The Lord's Supper : extracted and altered from a Liturgy printed at Salisbury in 1777 ; to which is prefixed an Introductory Discourse explaining the true Nature and Design of the Lord's Supper. By Eucharistes. 12mo. 2s. Johnson and Co.

More bubbles float on the theological stream than on any other current, but many of them are too short-lived to obtain notice. Eucharistes's bubble is of this nature : it is the antipodes of transubstantiation. The Catholic Church interprets the phrase "*This is my body*" to signify the real presence of Christ, excluding the idea of a memorial or remembrance ; Eucharistes, on the other hand, tells us that the expression is 'nothing but a metaphor, and a metaphor cannot be commemorated.' Several heavy pages are blotted in vain to induce us to think that 'it is extremely irrational to plead for a proleptic construction of the eucharistic law ;' that 'a personal commemoration of Christ was never intended ;' and that the words "Do this in remembrance of me" mean nothing more than "Do this according to my Gospel." It would be a waste of time and paper to employ arguments for the refutation of an hypothesis which cannot live an hour.

Art. 29. *On the Object of Religious Worship ; and the Pre-existence of the Son of God* : and the Cause, Necessity, Nature, Reality and Importance of the Union of the Pre-existent Son of God with Human Nature : to which is added an Historical Account of two notable Corruptions of Scripture, in a Letter to a Friend, by Sir Isaac Newton. By George Clarke, Surrey. Second Edition, with Additions. 12mo.

Mr. Clarke, of Surrey, (he might almost as well have said, of England,) neither sides with the Trinitarians in having three distinct objects of worship, nor with the Unitarians in addressing their devotions to one undivided Deity : but he pursues a middle course, seeming to favour a kind of *Binity*, if we may be pardoned the term ; for though he represents the Father to be the sole underived God, he associates the Son with him in the government, and talks of paying divine honours to *two* (p. 23.) ; and he does not allow the Holy Spirit to be a distinct person. The two corruptions of Scripture, noticed in the letter of Sir Isaac Newton, (stated to be in the possession of Dr. Ekins, Dean of Carlisle, and quoted from the 2d vol. of Mr. Matthews's *Recorder*,) are the interpolation of the three heavenly witnesses, 1 John v. 7., and the alteration of *δ* or *ε* into *Θεός*, 1 Tim. iii. 16. This letter manifests the accurate and profound research of its truly great writer : but, after the report of subsequent Scripture-critics,

critics, Mr. Clarke might have spared himself the trouble of reprinting this long discussion; especially as it had previously been given to the public.

Art. 30. *A Sketch of the Denominations of the Christian World; with a Persuasive to religious Moderation.* To which is prefixed an Introductory Outline of Atheism, Deism, Theophilanthropism, Judaism, Mahometanism and Christianity. With an Essay on Enthusiasm and Superstition, a Plan of the Divine Attributes, a Schedule of the Sects, and a Chronological Table of the leading Events of Ecclesiastical History, from the Birth of Christ to the present Time. By John Evans, A.M. *The twelfth Edition*, containing, beside many other Additions and Improvements, an original Account of the Shakers, *who neither marry nor are given in marriage*; but profess to be *as the Angels in Heaven*. 12mo. pp. 328. 5s. Boards. Crosby and Co.

Publications now issue in such numbers from the press, that we are under the necessity of making it a general rule not to notice *new* editions: but the work before us being of a peculiarly interesting and instructive nature, we have deemed it expedient to depart from our prescribed plan, by announcing to our readers this *twelfth* edition of Mr. Evans's Sketch: which, though still not without errors, certainly appears with improvements. The principal addition, as specified in the title, will be found to consist in the account of a singular American sect called *Shakers*; and, as this subject is not a little curious, we shall give, from the preface, Mr. E.'s comparative view of the opinions and practice of these enthusiasts.

'The Shaker unites with the Quakers in an entire submission to the spirit, and in the rejection of baptism and the Lord's supper—with the Calvinists and Methodists in laying great stress on conversion—with the Arminians in rejecting election and reprobation, as well as the imputation of Adam's guilt to his posterity—with the Unitarians in exploding a Trinity of three persons in one God, together with the satisfaction of Christ—with the Roman Catholics in contending for the continuation of miracles in the church—with the Sandemanians in practising a sort of community of goods, and having no persons regularly educated for the ministry—with the followers of Joanna Southcott, in believing that a woman is the instrument to bring on the glory of the latter day—with the Moravians and Methodists in encouraging missionary undertakings—with the Swedenborgians in denying the resurrection of the body, and asserting that the day of judgment is past—with the Jumpers in dancing and shouting during divine worship; and lastly, with the Universalists in renouncing the eternity of hell torments! Such a mysterious compound the skill of the moral chemist cannot easily analyse. But to this heterogeneous mass they have added a tenet hitherto unthought of, unacknowledged by any body of Christians. The Catholics indeed led the way in enjoining the celibacy of the clergy, and in the institution of monachism. It was left to the Shakers to perfect this abominable scheme *, and thus expose it to the derision of

* A scheme which abolishes marriage and separates the sexes.

the world ! The account I have given of this most singular of all sects is replete with instruction ; for it teaches the professors of Christianity this most important lesson — that in no instance they should give up the use of reason in matters of religion, and on no occasion, conceiving themselves to be the favourites of heaven, should they be found deficient in the exercise of an universal Gospel charity.'

At p. 254. Mr. E. laments that this *sect* should have taken up its abode in the *United States* : but, as its members are not angels, we may assure ourselves that, if they do not marry, they will do what is worse ; for Nature will take care that the Shakers shall not retard American population. Such publications as that before us are a convincing evidence of the follies and absurdities into which the common people may be seduced under the notion of religion.

Our first account of Mr. Evans's Sketch will be found in M. R. Vol. xx., N. S., p. 105. It then contained only 155 pages. Mr. Evans speaks of having sold 50,000 copies of this work ; the object of which, he says in the prefatory dedication, is ' to inspire religious denominations with respectful sentiments of each other, and to lead them to study the benign ends for which *the Gospel of Jesus Christ* was promulgated.' The whole is certainly penned in an excellent spirit, since Mr. E. endeavours to instruct all without offending any.

AGRICULTURE.

Art. 31. *An Essay on Draining Land, by the Steam Engine* ; shewing the number of Acres that may be drained by each of Six different sized Engines ; with prime Cost and annual Outgoings. By W. Walker. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Crosby and Co.

The vast power of the steam engine (that pride and glory of philosophy !) is now very generally known, and its use in raising water is demonstrated in every part of the kingdom. That it may be very profitably applied in draining land, no doubt can be entertained ; and Mr. Walker, in this short essay, points out the kind of land for the draining of which he would employ the steam-engine in preference to any other mode. It is remarked in the preface, ' that considerable tracts of low grounds and swamps are frequently found to lie at a great distance from the nearest outfall, and at the same time the land which lies between the low grounds and the outfall is often many feet higher ; so that in some instances drains are obliged to be cut 16, 18, or 20 feet deep, and that for many miles in length, which occasions such a vast expence, that, when the land is drained, it will not sell for the money that it cost in draining.' Land, under these circumstances, cannot be cleared of its pernicious waters in any way so expeditiously and cheaply as by the powers of the steam-engine ; and the useful tables contained in this little essay will assist country-gentlemen in calculating what *horse-power* (to use the vulgar and indefinite expression) will be requisite in any given case, with the price of erecting the engine, and the annual consumption of coals.

' A six-horse power will drain 8178 acres, and raise the water six feet high, the cost of erection being not more than 700*l.* or thereabouts, the annual outgoings only 166*l.* 16*s.* ; — this is more than ten wind

wind engines can perform; for a wind engine will raise the water little more than three feet.'

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 32. *A Discovery of the Author of the Letters of Junius*, founded on such Evidence and Illustrations as explain all the mysterious Circumstances and Contradictions which have contributed to the Concealment of this most important Secret of our Times. 8vo. pp. 139. 5s. Boards. Taylor and Hessey. 1813.

The recent appearance of Mr. Woodfall's private correspondence with Junius (see p. 367. of this Review,) having drawn a portion of the public attention to the history of that mysterious character, it was scarcely to be expected that the book-makers would allow the interest thus excited to die away, without endeavouring to impose some tax on public credulity. Few persons, however, could have suspected that an attempt would have been made to fix the composition of those keen and sarcastic epistles on two characters who are, as far as we can judge from their writings and speeches, by no means likely to participate in such serious and vehement productions. These personages are Dr. Francis, the well-known translator of Horace, and his son, Sir Philip; who, after having instructed and amused the House of Commons for a life-time of no inconsiderable length, has now descended into the vale of years. Those of our readers who have listened in that House to his humorous effusions, or who merely know him from his late pamphlet as the only writer in a hundred who gave an amusing cast to the endless discussions of the Bullion-question, must be startled at an attempt to identify him with the formidable, and, we must add, not unfrequently malignant Junius. The writer, however, of this tract seems to have known perfectly what he was doing; his object was to fix on persons of sufficient notoriety to excite attention, without concerning himself with the reality of the imputed circumstances. We have seen, in a late monthly miscellany, an explicit denial of the charge by Sir Philip Francis: but, without any declaration of this nature, the eye of a person accustomed to scrutinize the motives of pamphleteers would readily have discovered the drift of the present publication. It is in fact nothing else than a vehicle for a reprint of the more striking parts in the letters of Junius, or rather of the additions contained in Mr. Woodfall's late edition; and these are strung together with as much care as Blair discovered in selecting the beauties of Ossian, in his dissertation on the authenticity of those poems. Various circumstances are brought forwards in succession; and every where a resemblance is traced, or affected to be traced, between the situation of Junius and that of the Rev. Doctor and his son, who was at that time a clerk in the war-office. In charging the latter with a participation in the task, the writer never chooses to doubt the ability of a young man, at the age of twenty-four, to perform that which bears evident marks of mature thought and experience. Moreover, in representing these celebrated letters to have been the result of a partnership connection, the author of the present *Discovery* forgets how often we have been warned to put no faith in the efficiency of literary

Literary coalitions. The circumstantial manner in which the rescue of Major-General Gansel is related by Junius is gravely adduced as a confirmation of that event having been described by an eye witness; who, of course, can be no other than Mr. Francis, contemplating the scene from the windows of the war-office! In addition to these wonderful proofs, a list is added (p. 67. *et seq.*) of peculiarities of expression that are common to Dr. Francis and Junius. The words *conclude, pronounce, oratorical, irresponsible*, with the humbler accompaniments "wild, simple, &c." are exhibited in opposite columns, with as much gravity as if they had been never used in the sense in question by any other than the above-mentioned writers. A string of false concords is pressed into the same service; and even Sir Philip's late facetious tract on our paper-currency is adduced to bear witness that his style was the same at the mature age of sixty-five as in his days of juvenile ebullitions. On the whole, this may be called a very ingenious effort to tax an inquisitive public at the rate of five shillings per head.

Art. 33. *The Pamphleteer*, respectfully dedicated to both Houses of Parliament; No. I. for March, No. II. for June; to be continued occasionally; or at an Average of four or five Numbers annually. 8vo. pp. 285. each. 6s. 6d. Gale and Curtis.

We have here an attempt to carry into effect an idea which has, we believe, been repeatedly suggested, *viz.* of selecting the most interesting among the almost innumerable mass of pamphlets which issue from the British press in the course of the year, and reprinting them collectively in the size and shape of permanent volumes. The first of the two numbers before us consists chiefly of ecclesiastical tracts. The Catholic-question, the Bible-society, and the evils of irregular marriages, are all treated in succession. Towards the close of the number, we find a pamphlet on the question of the East-India Company's charter, and the demi-official Outlines of Finance; reviewed in our Journal for May. — No. 2. is somewhat more miscellaneous, and contains a tract by Mr. Hawkins "against a Reform in Parliament," a republication of the "Anticipation of Marginal Notes by the Americans on our Declaration of War," and three pamphlets on the "East-India Question." These are accompanied by Mr. Butler's address to the Protestants in behalf of their Catholic brethren, and by two short but very interesting essays on the means of increasing the supply of fish in the metropolis and its neighbourhood. The former of these is the pamphlet of Sir Thomas Bernard; the latter is the draft of a report from a society having in view the extension of the supply in question. The rest of the Number is made up of three publications on ecclesiastical subjects. — The two Numbers comprize 22 essays, or pamphlets, at a price certainly much lower than when they are sold separately. How far this project is likely, in these days of war and expence, to indemnify the publishers, we do not pretend to conjecture: but, if judiciously conducted, a work of this nature might answer the useful purpose of facilitating a reference to publications of merit, at a time when the lapse of years and the occurrence of intervening events had put the detached copies of the pamphlets themselves out of the reach of the inquirer. No. III. has just been advertised.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 34. Preached in Leatheringsett Church, on the Occasion of a Person's returning Thanks to Almighty God for her Restoration to Health after a Concussion of the Brain. By the Rev. J. Burrell. 8vo. pp. 19. Printed at Holt. 1812.

Mr. Burrell is probably a very serious preacher, and may have sermonized on 'all the similes of Scripture in reference to the subject of death:' but he is not an accurate writer, and in this fastidious age he should have kept clear of the press.

Art. 35. *Imposition the Support of Religious Imposture, and Heresy; and the Enemy of revealed Truth.* Preached before the Congregation of Protestant Dissenters at Harlow, Essex. By Benjamin Penn Severn. 8vo. 1s. Jones.

Without criticizing the title of this discourse, we shall observe that the preacher is a spirited advocate for Christian liberty. The positions which he defends are, 1st, that neither civil power nor ecclesiastical authority has any right to interfere with a man's religion; 2dly, that the service and worship of God are entirely matters of private conscience; 3dly, that Christianity cannot be established by human laws, that no church or sect has a right to legislate for another, and that true religion can flourish only when it is free. 'Liberty of thought,' says he, 'is essential to religion: liberty of conscience is essential to religion: liberty of choice is essential to religion.' These positions must be admitted, and the preacher's inference from them is legitimate and irresistible.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Of the article KANT, in the *Encyclopadia Londinensis*, some copies have been stitched up for the friends of the author, one of which has been handed to us for our examination. It would, however, be irregular in us to select for individual analysis the portions and fragments of the different periodical works which appear in this metropolis; especially when, as in this case, no separate publication has really taken place. We can only refer our readers to what we have said already of this foreign philosopher, in Vol. xxii. p. 15. Vol. xxv. p. 584. xxvi. p. 559. and xxviii. p. 62. — Our critique of *pure reason* must be reserved for the distinct publication of the work itself, or of this epitome.

Mr. Cove must again excuse us. The object of his animadversion is not in any way cognizable before a literary tribunal.

Our friend at Leixlip is informed that the first of the two works which he mentions never reached our hands, and is now out of date; and that the latter is at present under examination.

* * * The APPENDIX to this Volume of the Review will be published with the Number for September, on the first of October.



THE
A P P E N D I X
TO THE
SEVENTY-FIRST VOLUME
OF THE
M O N T H L Y R E V I E W
E N L A R G E D.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Lettres de JEAN DE MULLER, &c.*; - i. e. The Letters of JOHN MULLER to his Friends *Bonstetten* and *Gleim*; preceded by the Life and Will of the Author. 8vo. pp. 359. Zurich. 1810. Imported by De Boffe.

TO general readers, and particularly to students of history, the name of MULLER cannot be a stranger; and his History of Switzerland has gained for him a celebrity which will render the more interesting the present memoirs of his life and social effusions of his pen. His letters to M. *Bonstetten*, which appeared in Germany some years since under the title of "The Letters of a Young Scholar," were edited by Madame *Brun*, in the language of that country, as they were originally written; and the Germans felt themselves greatly obliged by the publication, since it made them better acquainted with the life and character of one of the most celebrated of their historians. The French editors of the present translation of these letters have added to them some few epistles addressed to M. *Gleim*, and have prefixed a version of the Life of MULLER written by himself, and inserted in a German work intitled "The Biography of learned Men now living at Berlin," printed in that city in 1806. — From this Life, we shall present our readers with a few abridged extracts, as introductory to and connective of our remarks on the whole production.

JOHN MULLER was born at Schafhausen, January 3. 1752. The settlement of his family in that city takes its date from the Reformation, and they were of respectable rank : but the first of his ancestors who interests the reader of his life is his maternal grandfather *J. Schoop*, an ecclesiastic of much learning, and who had himself collected very ample documents for a history of Switzerland. This circumstance led to an early inclination in the mind of MULLER towards his favourite study, and in his ninth year he attempted the history of his native city. He afterward read 'the luminous and agreeably written work' of *Hubner* on the Four Monarchies, and indeed got it by heart. In his twelfth year, he made his first attempt in historical criticism, by imposing on himself the laborious task of reconciling the different chronological systems of *Calvisius*, *Usher*, and *Petavius* : but it was not until his thirteenth year that he became more thoroughly acquainted with the Latin classics. He entered into the spirit of them rapidly ; and this study, to which he gave himself up with intense ardour, was the kindling spark of that sacred enthusiasm which he felt throughout his life for great characters, and for liberty.

From this department of his college-education, he passed onwards into the "School of Humanity ;" where he was employed in studies preparatory to his entrance at the University, and where a lucky chance gave him the opportunity of being the single pupil * of seven or eight professors during the course of two years. He mentions the names of four of his instructors ; viz. *Melchior Habik* ; *John George Deggeler* ; *John George Schwartz* ; and *Thomas Spleiss* : he records, with all the warmth of youthful gratitude, their open, liberal, and unreserved communication of their several stores of knowledge to their attentive pupil ; and he observes how much more was to be gained from such familiar intercourse than from formal lectures. This remark (so obvious, yet so offensive !) would, if generally maintained, tend to the greatest improvement in all systems of education. If pupils were allowed a more unreserved communication with their public instructors, in hours not appointed for lectures, (during which, as we lately observed in opposition to Mr. Ensor, question on the part of the instructed, and answer on the part of the instructor, would lead to the worst results,) it surely would be of mutual benefit to both parties : an additional stimulus would be applied to each ; and gross ignorance

* For a youth of MULLER's peculiar powers and indefatigable application, this may have been an advantage : but in other cases the want of rivals to excite emulation, and the multiplicity of instructors, so likely to perplex the student, would have been equally dangerous.

on either side must be effectually checked. Besides, in point of manners, important advantage might be expected: the young would mitigate the severity of the old; and the old would reasonably restrain the licence of the young. Or if, contrary to the usual course of nature, years had only added to indecorum, those who should be the graver party would recollect

“*Rident ac pulset lasciva decentius ætas.*”

We cannot here dwell on this important subject: but those who are acquainted with the constitution of our public seats of education will allow that no more promising opening for judicious and useful change is afforded than in this point, — namely, the increased intercourse of the older and the younger members of the several societies.

The father of MULLER was desirous that he should enter into the church; and the youthful student was not, at that period of his life, averse from such a prospect. On the contrary, the vast store of erudition which he deemed necessary for an adequate discharge of the clerical duties was but a collateral excitement to his undertaking the sacred office. Another motive was furnished by the example of the venerable *William Meyer*, principal minister of the church at Schafhausen; whose eloquence attracted the attention and whose character fixed the respect of his congregation. The illustrious name of *Mosheim* (whom he proposed to himself as a model) added fresh vigour to his inclination; and all seemed to conduce to the accomplishment of his father's and his own wishes, and to consecrate young MULLER to the altar. With these sentiments he repaired to Göttingen at the age of eighteen, in order to receive the instruction of *Dr. J. P. Miller*, a divine of an amiable and modest disposition, the friend and *fellow-commoner* (i. e. messmate, *commensal*) of *Mosheim*. Here he attached himself to his new master, and sought with eagerness the society of the learned *Walch**, who communicated to him with much courtesy his knowledge of history: *but he became disgusted with theology.*

We are naturally induced to bestow considerable attention on this turn in the mind of young MULLER, because he was evidently a person of no common character, and because his bias towards the sacred profession was, for the reasons which we have enumerated, unusually strong. What, then, effected this sudden change? We could wish our readers to attend to it, as closely as we have done ourselves. — Unfortunately, in his early boyhood, he had been compelled to study the work of

* Author of several works on ecclesiastical history.

Baumeister on the definitions of *Wolf*; which nobody took the pains to explain to him, and which in consequence brought down on him the censures of his first master, at Schafhausen, for a want of application and docility. He met with the "definitions of *Wolf*" again at Göttingen; where that writer's argumentative method was in vogue, and a new mode of considering and of establishing theological doctrines was adopted. They then made use of this new manner with some circumspection: but it is not very *encouraging* for a young officer, charged with the defence of a place, to see all the breaches pointed out to him, and to hear the engineers disputing whether it would not be well to demolish this or that fortification. We must mention also, say the biographers, the lectures of *Michaëlis*; a man of genius, and full of learning; but who, by his burlesque manner of translating and commenting on the poems of the wise and inspired men among the Hebrews, rendered the reading of those compositions for some time insupportable to his pupil. At last, *Schlözer* brought him back to the study for which he was particularly fitted; viz. that of history. He was employed by this judicious instructor in the perusal of northern and eastern annals, of which he had hitherto known but little; and after many preparatory exercises and inducements, (especially an increased acquaintance with French literature,) he decided to change his course, and concluded his theological studies with a dissertation in which he maintained "that the church had nothing to fear," A.D. 1770.

The above incidents are deserving the attention of those numerous divines who are advocates for a very minute and very learned examination of the sacred records, as a *preparatory* exercise in divinity: but we are too well aware of the difference of opinion on this particular branch of religious education, to press our own sentiments any farther at present; and indeed we are already conscious of something like a digression from the subject in hand.

MULLER had now to contend with the predetermined views of his father; and although he passes delicately, and as a son ought, over this part of his life, he yet betrays to the observant reader the difficulties which he had to encounter. He revised and completed some of his juvenile performances, and became the active coadjutor of those learned men who were publishing at Berlin the Universal German Dictionary. His zeal for literature appeared to merit the patronage of the government of his country, and he was appointed in his twentieth year to the situation of Greek professor. As soon as his project of publishing a new history of *Swisserland* was known, all the libraries in the different cantons were opened to him; and encouragement and
literary

literary assistance were offered on every side. He returns thanks in the most earnest manner to many of his friends; to the respectable *Bodmer* and *Breitinger*; to the learned *Schinz*, author of the History of the Commerce of Zurich; to *Johann Henry Füssli*, who imparted to him the contents of his library and of his own writings, like a brother; and to *Thiophilus Emanuel Haller*, son of the great *Haller*, who placed at his disposal, with unexampled kindness, the collection of documents and of authentic acts which he had himself formed with great expense of labour, time, and money; a collection composed of forty-five folio volumes in MS. and twenty-four quarto MSS.

During eight or nine years, MULLER was occupied in these researches; of which period he passed only about eighteen months' under his paternal roof. The more knowledge he gained, the more he was impressed with a high idea of the qualities of an historian. At this time he became acquainted with *Charles Victor Bonstetten*; a learned and ingenious young native of Berne, (some years his senior,) with whom he maintained the closest intimacy for twelve years; and whose friendship, although difference of employment and of situation rendered it less active latterly, he ever remembered with undiminished feeling. Awakened to new energy by this congenial friend, he more ardently than ever devoted himself to history and to politics. The persevering tenderness of his mother *, and who never despaired of the success of a laudable project, at last prevailed in obtaining for him the consent of his father that he should devote himself to a literary life. He obtained also the encouragement of the magistrates of Schaffhausen; and they gave him a flattering proof of their approbation, by allowing him to hold his place of professor for several years while the duties of it were performed by another.

We must be comparatively brief in our account of the remainder of this historian's life. He visited Geneva, and became known to the counsellor *James Tronchin*, of whose children he undertook the care; although, as he confesses, he had little taste and little skill for discharging the duties of a tutor. The father, however, was an intelligent man; and in his conversation MULLER was repaid, by a full exercise of his own intellectual powers, for the contraction and studied deterioration of intellect which are necessary for the performance of the task of a schoolmaster. Here also he was introduced to the celebrated *Charles Bonnet* and his lady; and to a young native of South Carolina, named Francis Kinloch, with whom he is said to have

* Poets have not made sufficient use of this sweetest of natural feelings, — the love of a son for his mother. What a field it opens!

passed some of the happiest hours of his life. They took a house in the country near Chambeisy; and although their habitation was not very splendid, it commanded a view of the Alps, of the lake of Geneva, and of the richly cultivated tract of land on its lovely borders. In this sweet residence they passed nearly a year and a half; enjoying the noblest compositions of human genius. Their mornings were dedicated to the social perusal of Tacitus and of Montesquieu; and when, in the afternoon, Kinloch employed himself in the study of Blackstone, or any other English writer, MULLER augmented his stores of knowledge concerning the history of his country: their leisure hours were divided between the pleasures of society, and the perusal of Latin, French, and English classics. Mr. Kinloch's guardian, Thomas Boone, a man of rare character, formerly governor of South Carolina, and afterward one of the comptrollers of the customs in England, added to this pleasant party; which was also occasionally enlivened by the company of *Bonnet*, of Mr. Fitzherbert, (now Lord St. Helen's,) and of *Voltaire*.

Subsequently to the time passed in this delightful retreat, MULLER paid a visit to Geneva, and there formed an intimacy with the Procurer-general *Tronchin*, the elder brother of his former friend. He seems to have derived considerable advantages from this acquaintance; and he now conceived the project of giving public lectures on history at Geneva. — One of his auditors, when he carried this plan into execution, was Mr. Charles Abbot, now Speaker of the British House of Commons. — After having finished his second course of lectures, he published at Berne, in the year 1780, the first part of his history of Switzerland. His style was critized severely; and he was reproached with affecting the brevity of Tacitus. He denies the accusation, but allows the justice of another objection; namely, that he had omitted to quote his authorities. For this omission, however, he afterward made ample amends; when, in republishing and continuing his work, he cast it into a form entirely new, and greatly added to the reputation which it had from the first acquired for its author. In fact this history has almost superseded every other account of the interesting country of which it records the destinies; and it has placed M. MULLER in the very first class of German writers.

- About the time just mentioned, the author visited Berlin, anxious to see the court of that celebrated monarch whose weight in the scale of European power was then so sensibly felt. His friend *Gleim* had the less difficulty on this account in persuading him to seek some honourable employment at Berlin; and he was introduced to the great Frederic. The King received him with that courtesy for which he *could* be remarkable, and

and gave him strong assurances of his esteem, *but gave him nothing more.* The idea of creating a new place for a stranger ought to have been suggested by the monarch himself, if suggested at all : but MULLER seems to think that the ill offices of some jealous courtiers (among whom the Abbé *Duval* is mentioned,) adroitly prevented Frederic from forming such an intention.

The troubles at Geneva, — those first sparks of the fire which, after having covered with ruins the fairest portion of Europe, concluded by destroying the happy liberty of that city herself *, — now recalled MULLER to his country : but on his way thither he was stopped at Cassel, by the news of the triumph of the popular party, who were offended with him for a work which he had lately published in a Collection of Historical Essays, printed at Berlin ; and by the advice of his friends, who did not then encourage him to return to Swisserland. Through the interest of the Baron *De Schlieffen*, then minister, he procured the place of professor at Cassel : but, shortly afterward revisiting his native country, he made a tour through the cantons, collecting fresh materials for his history ; and, about this time, he repeated his lectures at Berne.

A mere accident now brought on a correspondence between MULLER and the Elector of Mayence, which ended in his accepting a place in the Elector's court ; and this he did with the less reluctance, as it would certainly have been easy for the inhabitants of Berne to have detained him in his own country. In fact, they sent him offers of patronage and support if he would stay : but the generosity and kindness of the Elector had so won his regard, that he determined to devote his life to the service of that Prince.

Frederic Charles Joseph, Elector of Mayence, seems to have been a man who deserved to flourish in better times. He resisted as well as he could the growth of those seeds of disunion which now began to increase every day throughout the Germanic body, and to prepare the way for that dismemberment which followed. At eighty years of age, he met with tranquillity the storm which overwhelmed him, and, retiring to Eichsfeld, was there joined by his privy counsellor MULLER. By the desire of this Prince, MULLER now accorded with the express wishes of the Emperor, and repaired to Vienna to fill the office of Aulic Counsellor. After a stay of seven years at

* If the French editors had dared to give us the whole of M. MULLER's remarks on the breaking out and progress of the Revolution, we have no doubt that we should have seen him among the most ardent enemies of the sanguinary anarchists who have desolated Europe. Indeed, enough appears to prove his indignation against France.

Mayence, therefore, during which he had analyzed one hundred and twenty historical authorities, he took up his abode in the capital of the empire; where, in the course of twelve years, he was enabled to examine seven hundred additional records. Indeed, he found his time completely at his own disposal, and in consequence bestowed it on his literary pursuits. The abuse of the name of liberty, which the French had made a pretext for the grossest excesses, rendered any thing like freedom of opinion dangerous at Vienna; and the historian of Switzerland was doubtless not considered as likely to be a political adviser courtly and servile enough for the feelings of the times. MULLER, in a word, among the alarmed parasites of Vienna, must have been regarded as every Whig was in the Tory-reign of terror about the same time in England. — Appointed chief superintendant of the Imperial library, (the most magnificent and rich perhaps in the world,) he occupied above a year in correcting the catalogue of this collection; and it is to be hoped that in the subsequent scenes of confusion his labours have not been lost. — The blind alarm of the court was now at its height; and, among other absurd measures by which enfeebled power endeavoured to prop its authority, was an edict levelled against the liberty of the press: which forbade the publication of the second part of MULLER's history, with that of many other works equally innocent. He was also refused a place in the library, on which he had the greatest claims; and these repeated indignities having at length seemed to dissolve his bonds of duty to the Emperor, he retired from Vienna. — The remainder of his biography only informs us that he returned to Berlin, where he continued to prosecute his studies*; and we learn from the superscription of his Will that he died at Cassel, on the 29th of May 1809, aged 57.

It is impossible to read this simple and sincere document, the Will of MULLER, without much emotion. After all his literary labours, and all the distinguished offices which he filled, (the signature to his Will implies that he was Counsellor of State to the King of Westphalia in the year 1803,) he dies so poor that his possessions, as he anxiously fears, will scarcely pay his debts! His library, his letters, and his manuscripts,

* The editors mention several of MULLER's minor performances, all tending to the same object, the illustration of points in history or the establishment of sound principles of government and political economy. His leading maxim was moderate and gradual reform in the different governments of Europe; for each of which, as best adapted to the genius of the country in which it was established, he had a wise respect.

are all his wealth. These he bequeaths to his executor and brother *John George Muller*, to be sold and applied to the laudable purpose above mentioned; and, after having directed the publication of his MSS., and given some other orders, all for the same end, (to satisfy his creditors,) he adds, "I make all these arrangements out of pure necessity." We know not that we could select from the volume a passage that does more credit to the author's head and heart, than the concluding paragraph of this interesting memorial:

"How, in these last moments of anxiety, has my heart glowed with the desire of addressing those for whom especially I have lived, and who have always been my dearest objects!—You, my countrymen! confederates of the cities and cantons of Switzerland! How should I have exulted to chuse you for my heirs; to rest on the ancient generosity of your governments, and on the noble character of the rising generation, my confident hope that you would accept the inheritance of your historian and your friend, and that you would listen to his prayers!—but that which could scarcely be expected from the wealthy England,—how could I ask that of my exhausted country?—Your image, at least, illustrious Berne! and your's, Zurich! good and wise,—and ye, beloved Cantons, Waldstetten of the Alps, and all ye dwellers of the mountain or the plain, in whom I have recognized and honoured the true Helvetic virtues! your images shall yet follow me to the region beyond the grave;—and if there be a habitation reserved for those heroes, the glory of antient times *, I will go thither, and will communicate to our ancestors that their memory is yet living among their descendants!"

We may conjecture with what agitated and unhappy feelings the writer of this address must have heard, from time to time, the presaging sounds of that tempest which overwhelmed his country! While describing the antient struggles of Helvetia which ended in the establishment of her freedom, he was awefully summoned away from his task, to listen to those unavailing efforts which only for a short time indeed retarded her downfall. Long before his death, all his hopes of her recovery must have been extinguished.

Having devoted so much space to the life of M. MULLER, we can present our readers with a very few extracts from his epistolary correspondence. The letters which relate to public affairs are so much mutilated by the French editors, that we can catch but occasional glimpses of the indignant patriotism of the writer. 'Besides,' (as they urge,) 'the opinions of twenty or even ten years ago may not affect the present gene-

* "*Si quis piorum manibus locus est,*" &c. &c. Throughout the volume, we see the influence of his classical studies on the author's mind; and especially that of his favoured Tacitus.

ration ;' and M. MULLER (as they would infer,) is not pledged against Imperial France, because Revolutionary France excited his strongest dislike. Be it so :—he died counsellor of state to the King of Westphalia in the year 1809 ; and no more is to be said on the subject.

The literary and narrative part of these letters is by far the most interesting. Whether we read the account of MULLER's studies, or attend to his relation of the anecdotes of the day, we are equally struck with surprize at his indefatigable industry, and pleased with his unaffected openness of disposition. His acquaintance with the Greek historians, orators, and poets * seems to have been very extensive ; and we particularly admire the manly and original style of thought which pervades his criticisms on almost every branch of classical literature. Among the Latins, Cæsar contends with Tacitus for his approbation ; and among the moderns, Machiavel divides his esteem with Montesquieu. Plutarch is another chosen favourite ; and, in short, throughout his observations on the best authors, we perceive a practical and useful turn of mind, which is the first and indispensable qualification for an historian. The wisdom of past ages seems to him thrown away, when applied only to the gratification of a minute and critical curiosity. *He* applies it to the instruction and the improvement of those who are called to govern the modern world ; and, admirably prepared as he is to appreciate the excellence of Grecian or Roman eloquence, it is to the thought rather than to the expression of the most accomplished writer that he directs his attention. This sort of scholarship may be, for a while, comparatively discouraged, and may lament to see the verbal critic, the grammarian, and the metrician—nay, the bibliographer himself,—unreasonably preferred to its own far nobler votaries : but every thing must find its level in due season ; and the time cannot be very distant for *their* returning elevation, who can say with MULLER, although at a modest interval, "Our taste, our character, and the nature of our studies, make us more readily harmonize with those who, when they speak or write, seek the substance, and leave the sign or medium of conveyance to such as Pope called *Word-catchers*, who live on syllables."

We must be contented, we find, with two or three quotations from the letters. We shall chuse a curious fact in history, and a family-scene which does the highest honour to those who are concerned in it. The last seems to demand our first attention.

* We had an opportunity, when we reviewed the first volume of Butler's *Æschylus*, of pointing out the sound erudition and judgment of MULLER's contributions to the notes of his learned friend.

On the 13th of April 1776, MULLER thus writes from Genthod (the residence of Monsieur and Madame Bonnet,) to his friend Bonstetten :

"I have quite a history to relate to you. This evening I found myself alone at Genthod ; that is, with no other company than my host and hostess, when Monsieur Bonnet addressed me in a very serious tone. "My friend, I am going to ask you a question ; answer me with unrestrained frankness ; I demand it from your friendship." He then inquired whether I was pleased with himself and with his wife, and whether their solitary life did not appear too monotonous. You may guess my reply. "Well then," said he, "my friend, do me the pleasure to consider my house as your own. — I know that you are in need of some resources. I wish that you would stay with me on the same terms on which you staid with M. Tronchin ; and if you desire any thing farther, you have only to speak." Madame Bonnet added, "our sentiments have been long known to you ; and we are too old to change them. You also know our situation. We have no children ; therefore we are perfectly at liberty to do what pleases us. Bonstetten is our friend as well as your's : go and see him as often and for as long a time as you chuse : but do not forget that your home is at Genthod." "It is not," rejoined Bonnet, "that we wish to hinder you from changing your residence, if a more eligible one offers itself. We desire your happiness before every thing else. For the rest, I forbid all thanks, nay you must not even tell us what you feel at this moment."

This interview is to our minds almost heavenly.—The historical fact which we subjoin may perhaps be familiar to some of our readers : but we confess that our memory does not tell us in what history it is recorded. At all events it is curious ; and (like the pair of gloves refused by the Dutchess of Marlborough to Queen Anne, and the drop of water thrown on the gown of Mrs. Masham,) it shews, in the language of the poet, and according to the reasoning of the historian,

"What great events from little causes spring."

In a letter dated La Boissiere, January 26th, 1779, we have the following passage ; which acquires, from the accidental situation of the North, a new interest at the present moment :

"You know that about thirty years ago Sweden was occupied in the choice of a successor to her throne. The Dalecarlians entered the capital in arms, and endeavoured to force the Diet to decree the re-union of Denmark and Sweden. *The Swedes bate the Danes* : but the Diet feared the Dalecarlians above every thing. They were at war with Russia : but they communicated this affair to the court of Petersburg. The ministers assembled : they all felt the necessity of preventing this re-union ; and they wrote to the Russian ambassador at Copenhagen, to tell the King of Denmark that Russia would break with him if the hereditary Prince was elected in Sweden. Meanwhile, the Dalecarlians insisted on their point : it

was

was necessary to adopt some decisive measure ; and all depended on the moment ; but the Empress Elizabeth was for fifteen days and fifteen nights in such a state of drunkenness, that they could not find a lucid interval long enough to enable her to sign her name ! This situation was not extraordinary for the Empress. The ambassador, extremely surprised at the total interruption in the correspondence of his court, and convinced of the importance of prompt decision, risked his honour and his life, went to the court of Copenhagen, and declared war in the name of Russia if the Prince of Denmark accepted the throne of Sweden, and by this conduct prevented the junction of three kingdoms. Fortunately for him, the order which he had anticipated arrived at the end of a few days. Now, only reflect what profound political motives historians will discover in these events ! and yet all this is in the course of nature ! At least, it gives us an insight into a despotic government."

We shall leave our readers to select and peruse an abundance of lively anecdotes that may be found in the work itself ; which, besides increasing the respect for its author that we think they must already feel, will reward them with ample instruction and entertainment for their trouble in the perusal of it.

ART. II. *Tableau de la Littérature, &c. &c. ; i. e. A Picture of French Literature during the Eighteenth Century.* 8vo. pp.198. Paris. Reprinted in London for Colburn. 1813.

THE author of this little volume performs much more than he professes in his title-page ; for he not only gives a complete picture of French literature during the eighteenth century, but surveys with a rapid yet penetrating eye the predisposing causes of the French Revolution ; and, finding among them those general indications of decline and fall which have worked the gradual overthrow of every mighty empire,

— " *publica belli*

Semina, quæ populos semper mersere potentes,"

he avoids the unphilosophical mode of reasoning on this subject which has been adopted by so many of his predecessors. It has been too common indeed among our own as well as the French writers on the Revolution, to take for granted the existence of a literary conspiracy against social order, religion, and government ; and, setting out from this theory, to refer all the minor and, as they are pleased to say, the more indirect causes of the troubles in France to this fruitful source. The present author takes a very different method of argument. He draws an historical sketch of the manners of the court and capital in the latter part of the reign of Louis the Fourteenth ; and by pursuing these observations on the progressive corruption in every branch
of

of the state to a period beyond the middle of the 18th century, we are prepared to see the influence of society on the characters of men of learning in France, with the rest of their daily altering countrymen. Examples of this influence are pointed out among those, whose general views have been supposed to place them at the greatest distance from their contemporaries; and thus they are represented as unintentionally co-operating with more thoughtless and abandoned men, towards the production of that great event which has changed the whole face of Europe. The re-action of literature on society is far from being denied in this view of the question: but too much is not attributed even to the Encyclopædia; and, in the first instance, the influence of manners over learning is brought before us in the clearest light, and set apart, as it were, for the principal object of our examination in this interesting inquiry.

Brief as this work appears, it in truth opens a most extensive field for reflection, and accompanies the reader more than midway in many of its tracks of thought. To keep within our limits, we must be contented to lose the opportunity of detailing the author's remarks concerning the curious action and reaction of society on literature and literature on society, to which we have just alluded; and we must confine our own object to presenting the reader with some of those detached sketches of literary characters in which the volume abounds. We shall thus have a better chance of rendering justice to the fund of entertainment which it contains, and shall be secure from injuring by curtailment that portion of more refined instruction which it is so well calculated to convey in an entire perusal of it. The connection of the reasoning is indeed so close that it cannot but suffer from any interruption; while the judicious and lively representations of character, which we shall endeavour to preserve, may be regarded as a sort of gallery of portraits, with no other bond of union between them than the peculiar manner of their common painter.

Among the eminent persons who flourished in the æra immediately previous to that which the author more particularly describes, he does not fail to notice the celebrated *Peter Bayle*; and with a translation of his remarks on that singular character we shall begin our selections:

‘The Protestants, exiled by the revocation of the edict of Nantz, revenged themselves every day for the persecution which they had unjustly suffered, by calumniating the King and the Catholic religion. Their writings, entering into France, found there many other malcontents, who were irritated by the misfortunes of the war, and thus increased the public contempt for authority and for the laws.

‘Among these refugees, shone forth a man whose compositions will be long remembered; while their obscure libels were almost immediately

mediately forgotten. This was *Bayle*, the most determined and cool sceptic of all the philosophers. In general, writers make use of their scepticism to destroy existing opinions, and to find room for their own. Doubt is in their hands the instrument of victory. With *Bayle* it is the object, not the means. He aims at a perfect equilibrium of sentiment. Nothing makes the balance incline one way or the other. The spirit of party, the power of eloquence, the allurements of imagination, all are directed in vain against *Bayle*, and in vain endeavour to bring him to a decision. All opinions appear probable in his judgement. When he finds them ill defended, he comes to their support, and pleads their cause. Strange as it is, he seems to be pleased with this uncertainty; and his intellect is not oppressed nor harassed by this ignorance in questions of the greatest consequence to mankind. He broaches them, and rejoices in his inability to resolve them. That which has been a dreadful torment to so many great minds, so many exalted spirits, is a kind of sport for *Bayle*.

* A dangerous influence has been attributed to his philosophy. At first, indeed, this balancing between opinions may seduce some understandings; especially among those who fancy that they see a sort of superiority in it: but the scepticism of *Bayle* is a learned scepticism; and he laughs much more at persons who refuse their assent carelessly and without inquiry, than at those who submissively believe. Knowledge, formerly, conducted some men to scepticism: but ignorance, latterly, and a total want of thought, have opened a wider road to the same point. They are not such works as those of *Bayle* that mislead the vulgar; nevertheless, when they had appeared, they were sure to serve as a rallying point for those sceptical opinions which were beginning secretly to undermine all the foundations of belief.

We must pass over several intermediate portraits, and rest again at the picture of *Voltaire*. All the traits of this most striking likeness we have not leisure to examine: we shall therefore give an idea of the general resemblance, and then dwell as long as we can on some particular feature.

* Nature had indubitably endowed *Voltaire* with the most astonishing abilities; and such a powerful genius could not be entirely the result of education and circumstances. Yet it would not be impossible to shew that the employment of his talents was continually directed by the opinions of the times in which he lived; and that the necessity of succeeding and pleasing (the first motive with almost all writers) guided him in every season of his life: but it must, moreover, be observed that no person was so liable as himself to yield to such impressions. His mind presents, as it appears to us, the singular phenomenon* of a being most frequently deprived of the power of reflection; and, at the same time, possessing in the highest degree the power of feeling, and of expressing himself with wonder-

* We very much doubt the singularity of this phenomenon. In kind, though not in degree, we could mention more than one such instance. *Rev.*

ful vivacity. This, assuredly, is the cause of his success, and of his errors. This manner of looking at the whole of a subject under one point of view, — and of yielding to the actual sensation produced by that view, without reflecting on what the appearance might be under other circumstances, — has multiplied the contradictions of *Voltaire*; has often led him astray from justice and reason; has injured the plans of his works, and their perfection considered as entire compositions: but this absolute abandonment to the impression made on him, this impetuosity of feeling, this delicate and living irritability, has produced a pathos, an overpowering effect, a vigorous spring of eloquence or of wit, a perpetual charm of composition which flows on with a facility beyond all limit; and, when, on any occasion, reason and truth are arrayed in this brilliant vesture, they assume their most seductive graces; they seem to arise without an effort, all glorious with involuntary and native light; and he, their advocate, leaves far behind him every one of those who establish their claims by laborious judgment, comparison, and experience.'

We omit the application of these remarks to the character of *Voltaire* as a tragic, epic, and miscellaneous poet; where it will be easy to infer that they throw a great lustre of panegyric round him. At the same time it is discriminating praise; and even here the unfortunate want of this said power of reflection is frequently detected. To this cause are justly attributed the unmeaning levities, and the grosser obscenities, in which some of his minor and fugitive pieces so largely offend.

Voltaire the historian meets with equally appropriate criticism. His history of Charles the XIIth, 'where he had no great plans to appreciate, no secret motives to develop,' where all was action, and bustle, and rapidity, and theatrical effect, deserves therefore and finds much more commendation than his memoirs of Louis the XIVth; in which the little depth of his observations, his incomplete acquaintance with character, and above all his brilliant apology for unprincipled ambition, incur the grave reproof of the present writer. It is, however, to *Voltaire the philosopher* (if he must bear the title, although

— "*onerosa gravisque*

Pelias esse potest imbellibus hasta lacertis,")

that we call the attention of our readers; or rather we solicit an audience for the author:

'It remains for us to speak of the spirit that animated his philosophy; that is to say, his opinions on religious, moral, and political subjects. A formal plan has been attributed to him, for overturning these three foundations of the honour and happiness of mankind: but they who attempt to find in *Voltaire* a system of philosophy, connected principles, and a central point of opinion, will be very much perplexed in their researches. Nothing is less conformable to the grave idea that we form of a philosopher, than the sort of genius and character

character which is observable in *Voltaire*. It was the eighteenth century only that could have thought of calling such a man as this a philosopher. We can readily believe that he had formed a project of pleasing his generation, of exerting an influence over it, of revenging himself on his enemies, and of collecting a party to praise and defend him. He lived at an epoch in which morality was lost ; or at least in which the superior ranks of society, and he himself among them, did not venerate it. Envy and hatred employed against him the weapons of religion, when religion was no longer revered by her proper defenders. He considered it therefore only as an instrument of persecution *. His country had a government without force, without respect, and which did nothing to obtain either. He had a spirit of independence and opposition. Behold the true source of his opinions. We are imagining how *he* imbibed them, not defending *them*. He continually promulgated them, without thinking of the results to which they might lead. At all events, he was far from manifesting that unchanging obstinacy in his errors, and that revolting haughtiness, which mark some of his contemporaries.

In one of his romances, he has himself given us a just idea of his philosophy. *Babouc*, employed on an inquiry into the manners and institutions of Persepolis, recognized with sagacity all that was vicious, laughed at all that was ridiculous, and attacked every thing with a most uncourtly liberty : but when at last he perceived that from his definitive judgement might follow the ruin of Persepolis, he found advantages in every existing institution which he had not at first discovered, and refused to lend his sanction to the destruction of the city. Such was *Voltaire*. He wished to be allowed to judge carelessly and to indulge his ridicule on every subject : but a Revolution was far from his thoughts. He had too sound a feeling, and a disgust too great for vulgarity and the mob, to form such a project. Unfortunately, when a nation begins to philosophize like *Babouc*, it does not know how to arrest and weigh its opinions like him ; it is only by deplorable experience that it perceives, and perceives too late ! that it ought not to have destroyed Persepolis.

Our next portrait should be that of *Montesquieu*, but we can preserve only some detached traits of the resemblance :

‘ *Montesquieu*, notwithstanding the gravity of his character and the regularity of his life, will also present to our view very striking indications of the times in which he lived.’—

‘ It is particularly in the “ *Persian Letters*,” the work of his youth, that we observe that rashness of inquiry,—that paradoxical bias,—those decisions on manners, laws, and institutions,—and that

* Drawing general inferences from particular, nay, from insulated phenomena, is not even in its highest degree peculiar to *Voltaire*. Few indeed can examine their own case as if it were that of any other individual ; and almost as few are warranted by a *sufficient* induction in referring what they have observed to an universal law.

libertinism of opinion, (if we may so express ourselves,) which evince at once the liveliness, the vigour, and the imprudence of genius.'—

'After this publication, every thing contributed to modify the character of *Montesquieu*; to infuse more reserve into his opinions, and especially more caution into his manner of enouncing them. He was not a mere author. His whole life was not directed towards literary success. He held a solemn office. It was necessary for him to respect the example of his ancestors, and to deserve the esteem of that class of men in which he was ranked, and among whom knowledge only contributed to the increase of virtue. The President had not that independence which men of learning so eagerly covet, and which perhaps is of so much detriment to their abilities and their characters. He was restrained by ties of family and office, which imposed duties on him. He did not live at a distance from real business; did not inhabit that world of theory, in which authors find nothing positive and tangible, as it were, to bring them back to reason and truth, when their speculations wander wide of the mark. It was thus that *Montesquieu* attached himself to the laws of his country, to the character of his fellow-citizens, to the forms of their government; not so far as to approve them entirely, but at least enough to make him wish only to modify them anew, and not to overturn them from the foundation. He introduced into political economy a practical and useful spirit. He built it on the consideration of facts, and on the records of history.

'Nevertheless, *Montesquieu* always preserved some portion of the character which he had at first manifested in the "Persian Letters." Much as his reason rests on serious and solid claims, he was still perhaps more remarkable for the richness of his imagination than for the depth of his reflections. His works display to us a forcible and animated genius, which study and thought can scarcely controul.'

The application of these remarks to "The Spirit of Laws," to the "Grandeur and Decline of Rome," and to the minor compositions of "The Temple of Cnidos" and (if these are not his happiest efforts) "The Dialogues of Sylla and of Lysimachus," is too detailed for our insertion, but is admirably pursued, and will lead the attentive reader to the detection of some of the most curious laws of association in the human mind.

We must advance to *D'Alembert*; with respect to whom the power of discrimination, which is manifested by the present author, appears to our judgment singularly successful:

'*D'Alembert*, if we rely on the impartial testimony of mathematicians, was a genius of the first rank, and has left in this field (the field of science) evident traces of his course. Judges who are less acquainted with the subject will not wonder at this opinion, when they read that portion of the preliminary discourse to the *Encyclopædia* which relates to the exact sciences. Perhaps no author has ever displayed more ingenuity and simplicity in the examination of their principles and of their results. The analysis that he exhibits of

their method of progression; and the manner in which he brings truth before us, acquiring so much more certainty as it becomes more abstracted from real existences, and not being perfectly complete until it arrives at the identity of two signs expressing the same idea; * — all this part of his task is executed by a writer who ranges with a lofty flight over the science which he professes: but the other portion of the discourse is far from giving us so high a notion of *D'Alembert*. When he descends from the former subject, to inquire into the sources and principles of the different divisions of human knowledge, he shews himself to be imperfect and superficial; and if he had a thorough acquaintance with the sciences which claim and compare our perceptions, he was far from understanding those which consist in describing the impressions of the soul. It is true that the metaphysical system which then began to establish itself, and which *D'Alembert* adopted in this discourse, might lead him into error whenever he had to examine any compartment of the human mind which is not amenable to mathematical reasoning.

There are two † ways of studying metaphysics. The one begins itself with the interior of man, with the faculties and operations of his soul, with the destiny that may be allotted to it, *with its essence*, and with the nature of its operations. The difficulty of this science is to detach the soul from the workings of the body; and to find at once the boundary and the transition between moral and physical action. The other species of metaphysical inquiry follows a path completely opposite. It sets out from external objects; looks for their mechanical action on man; examines his sensations, and their immediate results; and marches as far onwards as it can in this track, endeavouring to arrive from without even up to that central point which constitutes human individuality. But, when it is necessary to join these operations of the animal to those of the soul, the inexplicable part of the subject appears again; and the chain of reasoning, whether begun from without or within, always ends abruptly. Thus there are two sciences; that of thought and that of sensation; which seem at first sight to share the same empire, but which yet never advance near enough to each other to be united. When we set out from the internal affections of the soul, we never arrive at sensation; and far as ever we may push our knowledge of a sensation, we never know how it becomes a thought. As those who cultivate these studies do not chuse to see where they fail, the first have been led to

* See the article "Algebra" in the *Encyclopædia*; and that of "Abstraction."

† Our illustrious countrymen, ever before-hand with the French in intellectual discoveries, have suggested a third. Not carried too far by *Descartes*, *Pascal*, *Malebranche*, or *Leibnitz*, in their estimate of the original powers of the mind, they have equally avoided the contrary error of the followers of *Locke*; have allotted its just province to external sensation, namely, that of awakening the world within; and have thus opened a path for all who wish to acquire a knowledge of their own mental capacity and progress, more safe and more certain than any that was ever pointed out before. *Rev.*

deny the real existence of external objects ; and the second have found themselves reduced to deny the existence of the soul. In general, however, they have recoiled from this consequence ; which, in fact, is the most absurd of the two absurdities.* —

‘ The exact sciences and natural philosophy harmonize best with the second kind of metaphysical study, namely, with the study of sensations *. These sciences endeavour to discover what nature is in herself, independently of the effect which she produces on each individual human being. To arrive at this end, they strip the impression produced by an object from all the particular circumstances which render it different to every percipient ; and they exert themselves to consider this impression under one only point of view. In this way, they render it identical in all cases ; so that every man builds the same edifice on the same foundations. They strive to obtain by this abstraction that which, if we may so call it, is the *net produce* of the sensation, in order to have a solid basis on which they may reason. Thus, to look at objects and their modifications as an absolute class of things is a design conformable to the spirit of these sciences.

‘ But the most natural tendency of the human mind is not to bestow pains on its thoughts in order to render them like those of others : quite the contrary : the mind is incessantly searching for means to make others take part in its own impression, just as it was received, without abstracting a single circumstance. A sentiment of sympathy makes it feel the desire of exciting in another its own sensations. To proceed by the way of demonstration, as the exact sciences do proceed, is assuredly a labour for the human understanding : it is an artificial method of arriving at the truth, which is nothing else but universal consent. To proceed by the way of persuasion is much more accordant with human nature ; and to communicate our thoughts to a single being, such as we have conceived them, is a much greater satisfaction than to enter into the agreement of all men on an abstract and unreal notion. Every thing which acts on the heart of man, affects his individuality, and penetrates into the interior of himself, is related to this second way of proceeding. The principles of religion, of morality, of political economy, of eloquence, of poetry, and of the arts of imagination, cannot exist unless they are the intimate and perfect conception of each individual. To imagine, as some have believed, that by the strength of good reasoning we can arrange these principles in such a manner as to compose an exact science † of them, must arise from want of reflecting on ourselves.

* In consequence, *D'Alambert*, pushing the ideas of *Locke* to their last results, considers man as a perceptive machine ; submitted entirely to the influence of external objects ; their more or less faithful reflecting mirror. All the arts of imagination were therefore viewed by him as different kinds of mimicry, not as expressions of internal feeling. *Rev.*

† As *Locke* fancied that morality was capable of demonstration, strictly so called ; forgetting that the principles of morals have the evidence of axioms, and are intuitively acknowledged to be true,

selves. With the least attention to our own nature, we shall perceive that abstract and demonstrative truth remains, as it were, a stranger to each individual; that it is external to him; while the truth of sentiment and of persuasion makes a part of man himself, and modifies him, or is mingled in every operation of his mind; whence it appears, we may conclude, that the *metaphysic of sensation* agrees more easily with the exact sciences than with the other provinces of human intellect.

We may add (although not partaking in all the indignation of Mr. Harris on this subject,) that the coldness and dryness of these latter metaphysical inquiries,—the *nihil magnificum, nihil generosum*,—if not proving them to be erroneous when applied to so noble a subject as the mind of man, at least make it manifest that their authors are ill-adapted to invade the provinces of imagination and of taste; or to develop those universal principles of feeling and of judgment, an adherence to which has rendered some authors and some artists the admiration of their own age and country, and the imitation of all others. We have dwelt too long, perhaps, on these abstruse matters: but the account given by this author of the success of *D'Alembert* in his survey of the exact sciences, and of his failure in the remaining portion of the “Preliminary Discourse,” seemed to us so philosophical, so just, and so well calculated to throw light on the shades of difference, (or rather in this case the contrasted powers,) in the same intellect, that we could not omit it. We now recur to lighter subjects.

Passing slightly over *Diderot*,—‘that ardent and disordered spirit, whose fire was without aliment, and whose frequently manifested ability had no direct application, and therefore will inherit no permanent fame,’—and omitting also the milder *Helvetius*,—we come to that strangest, that most irreconcilable, that most repulsive, yet most fascinating (in the original sense of fascination) of all human characters, *Rousseau*. We will take the principal city at once,—we will march to his *heart* directly through his *Confessions*. The minor towns will fall all around us; for here is a clue to the conquest of the whole man. If we have but faith enough to believe that he tells the truth, the shameful truth, when relating his own actions, we see the cause of all his errors, of all his conduct, and all his writings: in two words, unmixed selfishness.

but that in few cases of particular action we can have more than probable evidence of what is the best course to pursue. To sin, however, against probability, as Reid excellently puts the old observation, is as great a defect of our *moral* nature, as to judge against probability is a defect of our *intellectual*.—*Rev.*

“ It is assuredly a very singular phenomenon, that a man should endeavour to gain the esteem and even the admiration of posterity, by communicating the most petty details of a life which has nothing grand about it ; which displays no exalted action ; and which on the contrary is full of ignoble circumstances and of unpardonable faults. There is something still more extraordinary in the success of such an enterprize ; namely, in the author’s having persuaded men that he was virtuous while he told them *how* he was not so. Here, indeed, is shewn how powerful over the heart of man is the picture of a living and real impression ; what sympathy it excites in him ; and how it establishes between the speaker and the hearer such an intimate connection that the one very soon experiences what the other has experienced. Thus we may truly say that no man has known better how to reveal the innermost parts of his nature than *Rousseau*. Who has not felt himself affected and enchanted, while studying the animated picture of those vague reveries ; of those hopes incessantly deceived and incessantly regenerated ; of those enjoyments of the imagination ; of those romantic visions of virtue and happiness, always falsified and always embodied again ; of those storms of passion, that agitate the very bottom of the heart ; in short, who has not sympathized with the author while pursuing the history of a soul made up of dreams and solitude ? Having thus placed us, by the magic of truth, in his own situation, *Rousseau* forces us to partake in all his thoughts, and, if we may say it, in all his actions. We fall together with him into his errors, by an irresistible sort of declension ; we imbibe his unreasonable pride ; we see nothing but outrage and injustice round about us ; we become the enemies of all men, and prefer ourselves to every body : but, by reflecting better on such a feeling, we shall be enabled to perceive that this man, who has dragged us into his own vortex, constantly led a life of mere egotism ; that he referred every thing to himself ; that the very enjoyments at which he aimed always had something unsocial and incommunicable about them ; that he never sacrificed his interest, excepting to his pride ; that he envied every thing which he had not obtained, although he often voluntarily renounced the attainment ; that his affections themselves bear the broad stamp of selfishness ; that he even LOVED for his own individual satisfaction, and not for that of another.—In fine, we repent of having so grossly calumniated ourselves as to imagine that we were not better than such a being as this ; we readily conceive all his faults, but we pardon them no longer ; and we do not confound in future an explanation with an apology.”

After this *detection* of the latent springs of action in *Rousseau*, we have a clue to all his thoughts. “ Search then the ruling passion,” &c. We can now easily unravel the cause of his aberrations from established principle in all his writings. The seductive enthusiasm of the *Eloisa* ; the impracticable theories of the *Emilius* ; the still more absurd and visionary doctrines of his political writings ; and the ungovernable anger of his controversial compositions ; varied as they are in their effects,

may, by patient application of the master-key here offered to our use, be all unlocked at their very source, and displayed to our sight, severally deriving themselves from their fountain-head of *selfishness*. The lesson is humiliating to those who feel it to be in any degree natural; while to those who consider it as a just explanation of an unique phenomenon, it may be serviceable as a warning, or consolatory as a contrast.

We must here bid adieu to this instructive and delightful companion. We have not passed through one half of the gallery of portraits (to resume our metaphor) into which he has introduced us; and we are obliged to omit some of the very best specimens. The likeness of *Buffon*, for instance, is perfect, and the painting richly coloured. The Abbé *Mably*, *Thomas*, *Marmontel*, &c. &c. succeed, and are executed in a manner of equal felicity, though the subjects themselves are not so highly attractive.

Throughout the volume, the author pursues his leading idea of the general influence of the state of society on the most different literary characters; and allowing, nay enforcing, the opinion of their influence in return on the very manners which first formed them, he yet demonstrates that no settled or predetermined combination of men of letters against the established order of things ever existed in France. The incidental effects of their involuntary co-operation in the great work of change, for which the times had been so long preparing, are accurately ascertained; and most ingeniously traced to their causes: but on this topic, for the reasons before given, we had no intention to enlarge, and we shall therefore here conclude. We have performed what we promised, as copyists of a few detached examples of character-painting; and we trust that we have done enough to excite the curiosity of our readers towards the work itself, which we do not hesitate to recommend as one of the most useful specimens of original and profound thinking that has appeared in our æra.

ART. III. *Essai sur l'Etat Civil et Politique des Peuples d'Italie*, &c.; i. e. An Essay on the Civil and Political Condition of the Italian Nations under the Government of the Goths. By M. GEORGE SARTORIUS, Member of the Royal Society of Sciences, and Professor of the University of Göttingen. 8vo. pp. 370. Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boffe. Price 10s. sewed.

IN our LXVIII Volume, N.S., p. 467., we noticed at some length a French work by M. *Naudet*, which was more luminous than learned, but which obtained from the Institute of France an *accessit*, or secondary prize, for replying to the question proposed:

posed: viz. "What was the civil and political condition of the Italians, under the sway of the Gothic king Theodoric, and his successors?" The essay now before us is the triumphal dissertation itself; which was written, we believe, originally in the Latin language by Professor SARTORIUS, and which now appears, under the author's inspection, both in a German and in a French dress. The Professor is not unaccustomed to literary wreaths, a former dissertation by him on political economy having been crowned by the Haarlem society; and he is still more advantageously known by an excellent *History of the Hanseatic League*, which unites pervading research with concise exposition.

The principal authority for illustrating the interior administration of the Gothic dynasty in Lombardy is the *Varia* of Cassiodorus; who was pretorian prefect, or minister of the interior, to Theodoric, and who collected the dispatches and other state-papers which he was employed to compose. Of several editions of his works which are extant, that of Father Garet, printed at Rouen in 1679, passes for the best: but this author yet awaits an accomplished editor. Literature sighs especially over the want of perseverance of *Maffei*, who in his *Verona illustrata* excited hopes that he would publish Cassiodorus, and who was qualified for the task by his local and legal knowledge in a degree which may not happen again for a century, but who left his good intentions unperformed. In order to unite the chief original sources of information concerning the Goths of Italy, the editor of Cassiodorus should attach some pages of Jornandes, the Gothic war of Procopius, and the works of Bishop Ennodius, which *Sirmonde* published at Paris in 1611. The Theodosian Code, so admirably commented by *Jacques Godefroi*, is also a necessary study for those who would understand Cassiodorus.

Among the moderns, *Cochlæus*, the German author of the *Vita Theoderici Ostrogothorum Regis*, which the patriotism of *Peringskiöld* republished, in 1699, at Stockholm; *Maffei* in his *Verona illustrata*; and *Filiati*, in his *Memorie storiche dei Veneti primi e secondi*, 1796; have severally illustrated the original information which has been preserved.

Of these valuable guides, M. SARTORIUS has been careful to avail himself: but he explores with critical independence many traces which had escaped the notice, or the correct definition, of former investigators. His work is divided into twelve chapters: which treat of the state of Italy before the invasion of the Goths; of the divisions of the country, and the subsisting relation between the Goths and the Italians; of the foreign policy of Theodoric; of the form of government;

of the military condition of the Goths; of the civil and criminal law; of the police, and other branches of administration; of the religion, and the relation of the church to the state; of public instruction, the sciences, and the arts; of the national wealth, and the application of its resources; of the finances and taxes; and of the Romish discontents, which facilitated to Justinian the means of reconquering Italy.

These chapters, or disquisitions, for each of them contains a separate academical investigation rather than a narrative of facts in historic order, will interest the reader differently according to his local station in the map of Europe. The fifth chapter will appear the most valuable in France, where the art of quartering armies efficaciously in subjected provinces is an important study of the government. In this country, where questions of toleration and religious policy interest the passions and feelings of the people, the eighth chapter will probably be read with greater curiosity. We will extract from it the remarks on the condition of the Jews:

‘As for the Jews, they also had cause to praise the tolerance of the Gothic kings. They received a confirmation of all the rights, privileges, and franchises, which they had obtained under former princes; and if, which sometimes happened, differences arose between the Catholic clergy and the Jews, and they disputed with one another their respective possessions, impartial justice was shewn to either, whatever was the religion of the rightful owner. Thus it happened to Theodoric to allot a house which was litigated at Rome to the church claimant, and another which was litigated at Milan to the Jew claimant. The exhortation, with which this award concludes, is probably the exclusive work of Cassiodorus: “Why, O Jew,” says he, “dost thou seek after wealth so eagerly in this world, lost as thou art to that which is to come.”—The orthodox were less tolerant than the Arian heretics. At Rome, and at Ravenna, the Catholics repeatedly attacked the Jews, burnt their synagogues, and gutted their houses, under slight and frivolous pretences. The authors of these criminal excesses having fled, or been concealed, Theodoric, just to all his subjects, ordered the province to assess the necessary indemnity by a public rate, and to pay it to the sufferers; and this rate having been resisted by some zealots, they were publicly whipped as defaulters. The firmness of the monarch, however, injured him in the public estimation; and zealots were found to describe in the pulpit these scourged persons as martyrs, and their sufferings as ornaments to their character.’

M. SARTORIUS is of opinion that Theodoric would have done well to conform to the trinitarianism of his people; and that his continuance in the Arian profession of his ancestors was unfavourable to the entire allegiance of his subjects. The orthodox obeyed Theodoric cheerfully, only while the Greek emperors

emperors were heretical : but, as soon as orthodoxy sat on the throne of Constantinople, the church of Rome began to intrigue there for the removal of the Goths, and the introduction of the Greeks. The conquests of Belisarius, so mischievous for Italy, because they could not be maintained, were thus prepared by the church. In examining the conduct of Boethius, M. SARTORIUS declares for the opinion expressed by us on a former occasion, that, although a martyr for his church, he was a traitor to his king ; and that his execution was on Theodoric's part an act of legitimate justice. The acknowledgement of Boethius lurks in many parts of his writings. In the Consolation of Philosophy, (*lib. i. prosa 4.*) he says, it was not permitted him to speak to the king, for in this case "*respondissem Cami verbo, qui cum a Caio Cesare Germanici filio conscius contra se factæ conjurationis fuisse diceretur, Si ego, inquit, scissem, tu nescisses.*"

Of the architecture called *Gothic*, Theodoric appears to have made use in his public buildings : it was perhaps a taste imported from Constantinople, and first domesticated at Ravenna. Of the institution called *chivalrous*, however, this prince seems not to have availed himself in his military legislation. Probably it was a system still confined to the Cimbric nations, and was destined to wait the ascendancy of Charles Martel of Brittany, before it could be established and generalized in France.

Instead of merely translating this work, or that of M. Naudet, it would be better for any of our men of letters to make a new book out of the two. The historic plan of the French narrator, illustrated with the profounder learning of the German professor, would supply a welcome account of the rise and fall of the Gothic dynasty in Italy ; which is an interesting and instructive phenomenon, because it exhibits the first example of a *modern* nation, of an independent kingdom, reared on the scite of what was previously a Roman province. It was an ominous specimen, and displays a confederated clergy over-awing and coercing a military monarch in a manner prejudicial to interior tolerance and external independence.

This essay, though learned, is somewhat dry, and will be read with approbation rather than eagerness. To the praise of sound sense, of impartial judgment, and of persevering attention, the author is unquestionably intitled ; yet his estimates are rather obvious than sagacious ; and his labours have been closely circumscribed within the sphere of his research, not suffered to wander in quest of instructive and welcome parallelisms. The text is elaborate and comprehensive, without being very engaging or brilliant ; and the notes contain the requisite

quisite references, quotations, and proofs : but they are seldom enlivened, in Gibbon's manner, with flashes of wit, modern allusions, or critical reflections.

ART. IV. *Tableau des Peuples, &c. ; i. e. A Picture of European Nations, classed according to the Languages which they speak, and of the Religions which they profess.* By FREDERIC SCHOELL. Second Edition, entirely new modelled, and greatly augmented, with a Geographical Chart. 8vo. pp. 350. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 12s.

THE Germans, with that plasticity which distinguishes their character as derived from their education, are becoming a separate literary order at Paris, and are busily and ably promulgating in the French language a sort of information which has long been deposited in their own. We have already noticed Koch's *Tableau des Révolutions de l'Europe*; (Vol. lvi., N.S., p. 509.) Bouterweck's *Littérature Espagnole*; (Vol. lxx., p. 449-i) Sartorius's work, which is the object of our preceding article; we are expecting Dalberg's *Mebald et Zedli*; and we have now to announce from M. SCHOELL this *Tableau des Peuples de l'Europe*. The seeds of German culture were imported by Frederick II. from Paris: but the ripened crop is carried back again to supply an incipient sterility of the parental soil.

This Picture contains a French syllabus of each of two distinct courses of German professional lectures. The first attempts a genealogical sketch of the inhabitants of Europe, their affinities being inferred from language; and the second undertakes a classification of their religious persuasions.

In the introduction, it is observed that the word *nation* may be employed in three different senses. It sometimes designates a people comprehended within certain natural boundaries, as when we describe the people beyond the Alps as the Italian nation; and this may be called the geographical sense of the word. In its historical sense, it sometimes designates a people comprehended under separate political laws; as when we call the people of those German circles that are dependent on the court of Berlin, the Prussian nation. Thirdly, it has a genealogical, or rather a *genethliacal* sense, in which it simply designates a people of the same race, or of common descent, without regard either to the territory which they inhabit or to the sovereignty which they obey. Thus the English nation may be said to have overspread North America. In the present work, it is only the genealogical definition of the European nations which is to be attempted; and in which their *nativities* are to be calculated, and their *genethliacal* affinities ascertained.

The

The great basis for ascertaining these affinities, especially in remote ages, is language. With a view to the classification of all the nations of the earth by their hereditary affinities, Mr. Patrick (see this volume of our Review, p. 164.) lately collected a comprehensive vocabulary of numerals: but numerals, as we observed on that occasion, are not the fittest stepping-stones over the flood of oblivion.

‘The most proper words, (says M. SCHOELL, p.15.) for establishing the identity or the diversity of languages, are the pluralizing formulas, auxiliary verbs, pronouns, words describing the different parts of the body, common utensils, names of relationship, of the heavenly bodies, and of the phenomena of nature. These are the words which, down the flow of ages, and amid the whirlpools of revolution, have commonly preserved some traces of their primitive condition; and of that original character which no friction suffices to efface. Next to these primitive and fundamental terms, we must examine that class of words which are grammatically called *roots*; and which exhibit in a shape undisguised by inflection, and undiminished by analogy, the elements of expression. These roots often conceal their identity under varieties of orthography; and it is in trying to remove what is accidental and peculiar to a particular nation, and thus tracing back the root to its primæval state, that the etymologist has frequently and especially to beware of the hallucinations of fancy.’

A well-placed compliment to the French language terminates the introduction, in which obligations are acknowledged to the writings of *Schloetzer* and *Adelung*:

‘The origin of the French language is indeed admitted to be neither pure nor illustrious: its birth dates from modern times. If it descends remotely from the Latin, a corrupt provincial latinity was the immediate mother, and was impregnated by northern barbarians: but the advantages, which it wants on the score of descent and antiquity, are amply compensated by the melody and clearness which form its distinguishing characteristics. If it has not produced other languages, it has furnished a crowd of writers whose immortal works, not less powerful than political events, have given to it in Europe an ascendancy which no one of the antient languages can any longer contest.’

According to M. SCHOELL, we have thirty-four distinct European nations, whom he denominates Portuguese, Spaniards, Basques, French, Bas-bretons, English, Welsh, Scotch, Irish, Hollanders, Flemings, Germans, Danes, Icelanders, Norwegians, Swedes, Laplanders, Fins, Esthonians, Liffanders, Russians, Lettons, Poles, Lusatians, Bohemians, Walachians, Turks, Greeks, Albanians, Hungarians, Servians, Croatians, Wends, Grisons, and Italians; not to mention three races of men, who, though scattered over Europe, remain foreigners in it, viz. the Jews, Armenians.

Aminians, and Zingars, or Gipsies. This list is not neatly formed. It consists of thirty-five names, though only thirty-four were announced; and of these names some are redundant. The Scotch, for instance, are either Irish or English, and do not constitute in the genealogical sense a distinct class. In like manner, the Bas-bretons and the Welsh, the Portuguese and the Spaniards, might have been classed together. Indeed, the author proceeds to reduce his subdivisions to twelve, which he denominates the great families of Europe: viz. Basques; Celts; Cimbri; Goths; Nations whose language is derived from the Latin; Slavonians; Greeks; Turks; Lettons; Fins; Hungarians; Albanians. A separate chapter is allotted to each of these families, and some notices are given both of their language and their history.

We shall translate the sixth chapter, which treats of the Slavonian nations in general:

‘ The Slavonians, one of the most numerous and powerful nations mentioned in history, originally dwelled on the Lower Danube, and occupied the northern coast of the Black Sea. In the fourth century, they were under the dominion of the Goths: but Chazars and Huns attacked them, and drove them toward the Vistula, into the countries of the Sarmatic tribes. When the kingdom of the Thuringians was overthrown by the sons of Clovis, they seized the northern provinces of Germany as far west as the river Saale. Their denomination is derived from the word *slovo*, signifying *same-tongue*, or speaking one language.

‘ Now, however, several Slavonian dialects prevail, which differ in their character from all other idioms antient or modern. They abound more than the Gothic dialects with consonants, which they delight to accumulate at the beginning of syllables; and many of these consonants are accompanied by a soft aspirate (*monillés*) which is peculiar to these languages. They have no article. Their declension is made by flexion; and they have seven cases: the six cases of the Latins, and an *instrumental* case. They have, as in Greek, three numbers. The Slavonian distinguishes in declension a living from an inanimate being. In conjugation, the persons (as in Greek and Latin) are marked by terminations; and it is not necessary to employ the personal pronoun. The Slavonian languages have four future and four past tenses, but no subjunctive modes and no passive voices: they are rich in participles, which they use in composition like the Greek. The verb has peculiar forms to indicate a transitive, an enduring, and a repeated action. In the application of prepositions, the Slavonian resembles the German; in the structure of sentences, the Latin.

‘ Most of the Slavonian nations first learned to write on the introduction of Christianity. All that we know about the origin of their alphabet amounts to this. The Slavonians of the south, who inhabited Pannonia, Dalmatia, and Servia, were first instructed in Christianity by two Greek brothers, named Cyril and Methodius, who lived in the ninth century. The former, who was also called Constantine the Philosopher,

Philosopher, was an able grammarian ; and, by means of the Greek alphabet, and of some additional characters of his own invention, he contrived to express all the sounds in use among the Slavonians, and to reduce their language to writing. His alphabet was long called the Cyrillic alphabet, and has been adopted with little variation by the Russians. These two brothers, in concert with some other Slavonian priests, began to translate the Bible and other liturgic books into Slavonian : but, having ventured to celebrate the mass in that language, this innovation displeased the see of Rome, and the Pope issued fulminations against the version and against the alphabet of Cyril. However, in the eleventh century, a legend was invented, which attributed to Saint Jerom the alphabet of Cyril ; and, by the help of this pious fraud, both the letters and the liturgy were revived, and approved at Rome. This alphabet is now called *glagolitic*, from the Slavonian *glagol*, a letter : it comprizes thirty-five characters.

‘ The principal Slavonian nations are the Russians, the Servians, the Croations, the Wends, the Poles, the Bohemians, and the Lusatians.’

To each of these subdivisions a separate paragraph is allotted. An interesting chapter also is the seventh, which treats of the Greeks. A work of M. *Codriki* is commended, intitled *Observations sur l'Opinion de quelques Hellenistes touchant le Grec moderne* ; whence much of the present author's information appears to have been condensed. Should any islands of the archipelago be allotted permanently to us at the negotiation of the next peace, this branch of literature will acquire in England a political value.

The first appendix treats of the Sanscrit language, and attempts to shew that it is parental to the Low-Dutch and other Gothic dialects of Europe. This curious, instructive, and profound archæological disquisition is abridged from the German of M. F. *Schlegel*.—The second appendix is allotted to the German accent, which is regularly attached to the radical syllable of a word.—The third appendix relates to the lax and versatile application of the word Saxon.—The fourth is an abridgement of *Beck's* Observations on the Origin of the French Language ;—and the fifth analyzes the Turkish language, and terminates the first section or tome of the work.

The Picture of European Religion follows. An introduction treats of the origin of religion among mankind, and divides into two main classes their forms of opinion ; those which have not and those which have for their basis the worship of a single God, the creator and preserver of all things ;—that is, into polytheism and monotheism. The fetish worship of the African negroes, and the star-worship of the Sabeans, are classed, as forms of polytheism, with the anthropolatry of the Greeks and Romans, and with the religion of Fo and the Lama of Tibet. The sun-worship of the Persians, and the manicheism of the

Zend-Avesta, on the contrary, are classed with the monotheism of the Jews, Christians, Mohammedans, and Deists; and so is, with more doubtful propriety, the Bramism of the Hindoos.

In remote ages, the fire-worshippers of Persia carried into Hindostan that pantheism which formed the fundamental tenet of their religion; and they taught the worship of the Great Whole, of the entire universe of nature, in its triple alternate capacity of creator (*Brama*), preserver (*Vishnoo*), and destroyer (*Shreeva*), of all included beings. This very doctrine, about the same period, was promulgated in Egypt; where the creator was called *Phthas*, the preserver *Iao*, and the destroyer *Cneph*: while in Persia the creator was called *Ormuz*, the preserver *Mithra*, and the destroyer *Abriman*. These triads, however, are allegorical separations of the Great One, and do not infringe on the monotheism of his adorers.

‘All the inhabitants of Europe’ (continues the author, p. 197.) ‘acknowledge, at least in public, the existence of an only God, the creator and preserver of the universe. Some claim to derive this knowledge from the light of their own reason, which they deem sufficient to attain this conception: others, from a revelation made at particular times by the eternal God. The first are called *Deists*; and the second may be termed *adorers of Jehovah*, from the name given to the supreme Being in the language of the people whose records first mention a revelation.

‘If natural reason suffices to intimate the existence of an everlasting God, we cannot however deny that it does not furnish a complete demonstration of this consolatory truth; and that man acquires only through revelation a perfect knowledge of it. The doctrines of deism are simple and few: the existence of a God, the creator and preserver of the universe; the immortality of the soul; the eventual retribution of moral conduct, and the consequent utility of virtue; these constitute the entire religious system of the Deist. As philosophy knows not the precise relation which the creature bears to the Creator, and has only vague and uncertain ideas of his providence; so the Deist knows only his general duties, founded on the principles of morality inferred from human experience. No strong motive directs him to religious practices. Twice during the last century, once in England, and once in France, an attempt was made to found among the Deists an exterior and public worship: but both these attempts were unsuccessful.

‘We shall divide into three classes the adorers of Jehovah. In the first are to be placed the Jews, who admit only one revelation. In the second class, the Christians, who acknowledge two revelations. In the third class, the Moslems, who adopt a third revelation posterior to the Christian.’

The author then proceeds to treat of the Jews and their subdivisions; of the Christians and their subdivisions; of the Mohammedans and their subdivisions. A difficulty occurs as to the arrangement of *the Christians of St. John*; whether to place them among the Jewish or the Christian sects. Much
curious

curious information concerning them is contained in the Appendix, No. iii., of which we shall give the outline.

Some writers have described, under the name of Sabeans, a religious sect which subsists in the neighbourhood of Bassora, in several parts of Arabia, Syria, and Persia, and in Galilee, but which is internally denominated *Mendaije Sabna*, disciples of John. These people set a great value on baptism, and on some peculiar sacred books, which they receive in addition to the Jewish canon, and profess to derive from John the Baptist. Such a sect already existed in the apostolic times, (Acts, xviii. 25., and xix. 3.) and may have continued to these days. The first writer who published in Europe an account of this sect was Father Ignatius, a Carmelite missionary from the court of Rome to the Nestorians of the east: who in 1652 dedicated to the Pope an octavo volume, intitled *Narratio Originis Rituum et Errorum Christianorum Sancti Johannis*. — *Kempfer* in 1683, and *Norberg* in 1780, communicated some farther particulars.

These Sabeans call themselves Galileans, and are probably derived from certain disciples of St. John, who after the death of their master did not follow Jesus Christ. They profess to administer baptism as John administered it: conferring it on infants who are forty days old, and annually on adults. They acknowledge that John baptized and ordained *Enosch utro*, a son of God, who was *manda di chaie*, the word of life, and who ascended with St. John into Abraham's bosom. They charge the disciples of this man of God with having corrupted and profaned the form of baptism instituted by John, so as to infringe the unity of the divine nature. They abstain from wine, and eat no flesh but that of the camel. In their annual eucharist, they distribute to the communicants honey and locusts. They celebrate four quarterly festivals, consecrated to the nativity of St. John, to the anniversary baptism of the congregations, to the sainted dead, and to the mount of miracle; on which last festival the people of Galilee make a pilgrimage to a place beside the lake of Tiberias, where they believe John to have at one time dwelt, and to have extirpated a monster formidable to the neighbourhood. The Galileans, or Sabeans, are very hospitable to one another: they do not practise polygamy; and their women eat with men as in Europe.

Otter brought to Europe those copies of their sacred books which are deposited in the library of the Louvre. They are intitled *Divan*, or the assembly, or ecclesiastes, and are four in number. The first, called *Sedrah-Adam*, professes to have been given by the angel Raphael to Adam in paradise, and narrates the fall of the angels: it seems to be a first part of that book of Enoch which is preserved in the Abyssinian canon,

and

and perhaps formed a part of the Jewish canon in the time of the preaching of St. John in the wilderness. The second book treats of the ecclesiastical history of Galilee. The third, *Sedra-Jabna*, contains the moral precepts of John, many of which also occur in the Ecclesiasticus, and in the Christian canon. The fourth, called *Cbolasteh*, or the completion, details such ceremonial laws as John considered to be of perpetual obligation.—In these books, “king of light” is an epithet frequently applied to the Supreme Being; and the following prayer is ascribed to John:

“Hallowed be the name of the Lord of glory. We have done that which we ought not to have done; forgive us our trespasses. Thou who art merciful, have pity on us; thou who art mighty, have pity on us; thou who knowest all, have pity on us. King of light, hear us. O thou, who revealest every hidden thing, enlighten us. Lord of glory, grant the deliverance of the faithful. O thou maker of every good thing, sustain the good. O thou giver of every useful gift, vouchsafe unto us fortitude. Guardian of the faithful, deliver us from evil. Saviour of souls, deliver us from sin. Assuager of malice, uproot in us every feeling of unkindness. Strengtheners of the soul, give us courage. Lord of glory, let thy light shine on us. O thou who supportest the peaceful, give us thy hand lest we fall; if thou guidest not our path of life, tribulations await us. O thou who art truth, teach us to speak truth. Enable us to discern between everlasting life and everlasting death, between light and darkness, between good and evil, between truth and error. Teach us to subdue anger by kindness. Thou who givest light to the world, who stretchest out the starry firmament by thy might, who sendest down the living waters, preserve us. Thou from whom the teachers of truth receive their mission, source of wisdom, withhold not from us thy truth. We are miserable sinners; let not thine anger bear hard on our transgressions. Our eyes have winked at evil; our ears have hearkened to foulness; our lips have uttered guile; our hands have reached at that which belongeth to another; our flesh has indulged in the forbidden thing. O our Lord smite us not in thy wrath; forgive us our trespasses; have pity on us, Lord of worlds and all souls. Hallowed be thy name.”

To *Silvestre de Sacy*, we believe, the present author is indebted for the version of this fine prayer: it is much to be wished that the entire *Divan* could in like manner be given to Europe. Without a minute examination of the internal evidence contained in these books, it would be premature and rash to consider them as containing *genuine* works of John the Baptist: but, as the natural probability is great, and the tradition uninterrupted, that such a sect was formed, and that such books were bequeathed by him among his partisans, there is reason to hope that authentic documents exist in the *Divan* which will throw a new and great light on the historic origin of Christianity,

tianity, and give some fresh grounds for deciding between those controversialists who contend about the primitive unitarianism of Christian theology. The manuscripts in the Parisian library are not of very antient date : the oldest was written in the year 968. of the Hegira : the newest in the year 1091.

A map of Europe, in which nations are coloured off by their languages, forms a welcome decoration of this neat and instructive volume. We feel inclined to recommend the perusal of it to those public men who may be engaged in the negotiation of any ensuing peace. How much purer a principle of political distribution would be the consanguinity of dialect, than the accidents of warfare ! Why not throw into one mass all the provinces using the German *because* they speak the same tongue ? It is this which fits them to study the same writers, to listen to the same orators, to imbibe the same prejudices, and to vibrate with the same sympathies : it is this which will eventually consolidate them in one national body. Why not give to the Italians a government co-extensive with their idiom ; and in like manner unite the hitherto-divided fragments of the Scandinavian and of the Spanish peninsula ? It would be found that the independence of Europe is best secured by the insulation of the several distinct languages. French parties have originated in foreign countries, in exact proportion to the prevalence of the French tongue : but if language were avowedly made the limit of direct dominion, each country would cultivate its own, not acquire that of the domineering power. We should then have less literature in common, but more of variety and rivalry ; and we should find in the greater competition of authors an additional motive for elegance of execution, with an additional chance for soundness of instruction.

ART. V. *Nouveau Choix de Synonymes Français, &c. ; i. e.* A new Selection of French Synonyms, specifying their different Significations and the Manner of using them with accuracy ; in Continuation of the Works of the Abbé Girard and M. Bausset, by J. B. LE ROY DE FLAGIS, formerly Deputy to the Constituent Assembly, and now a Member of the General Council of the Department of the Lower Seine ; of the Royal Academies of Dijon and Arras. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 890. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 4s.

A CENTURY nearly has elapsed since the Abbé Girard gave to the republic of letters the first specimen of a valuable work on the distinction of synonymous words ; and few books have ever, in the history of literature, been received with more

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general approbation. The accuracy of its discriminations obtained for it the confidence of scholars; while its perspicuity and general utility made it acceptable to the more numerous class, who, without aspiring to the character of authors, were desirous of speaking and writing their own language with precision. So successful an example could scarcely fail to call forth various imitators. Accordingly, *Diderot*, *D'Alembert*, and other writers in the *Encyclopædia*, laboured in the same field with considerable success. Next came *M. Bauzée*, who published a collection of the explanations of synonyms given by his predecessors in this department, with various additions of his own. He was followed by a scholar of more extensive erudition, perhaps, than most synonymists,—we mean the *Abbé Roubaud*. The plan which the *Abbé* observed in his researches was to derive the meaning of words, less from current usage than from etymology; and he spared no pains to trace the origin of words in Greek, Latin, and Celtic: a course which has had the effect of rendering his work more interesting to the philologist than to the public at large. In consequence, however, of the general conclusions deducible from his comprehensive mode of reasoning, the number of synonyms explained by the *Abbé Roubaud* is not short of two thousand. Lastly, three hundred more words were elucidated by *M. Guizot*, in a new edition of a dictionary of French synonyms, which was published a few years ago.

Such were the previous productions on the subject, when *M. LE ROY DE FLAGIS* ventured to think of adding his contribution to the general stock. He had been warned by his friends that, in these times of political convulsion, the public would be little disposed to turn its attention to the quiet labours of a philologist: but he determined to persevere; satisfied, like *M. Bauzée*, that partial additions even were desirable, and would, when followed up by other persons, lead eventually to the formation of a complete dictionary of synonyms. After he had made some progress in the work, he became sensible of its difficulty, and might have desisted, had he not been apprized that, with all the claims of the *Abbé Roubaud* to the approbation of the learned, a plan of greater simplicity would be more acceptable to the bulk of readers. Instead of looking for the sources of distinction in etymology, he was led to direct his attention to existing differences in the state of society, and the nature of composition.

‘If there be not,’ he says, in a perspicuous but somewhat verbose preface, ‘If there be not among us as many languages as classes in society, we have as many shades of phraseology as of situations in life. We do not use the same words in public as in private; nor in
a familiar

a familiar letter as in a studied harangue. Neither do we express ourselves in prose as we do in verse : but whether we write in the one or the other, an intelligent person will distinguish the language of the trader from that of the courtier, and that of the agriculturist from that of the citizen. It follows that language is found to possess few surplus words ; and all that either have or have lately had currency among a class superior to the lowest vulgar may with propriety be recorded under some title. On the other hand, there are several extensive classes of words with which the synonymist has little occasion to trouble himself. Almost all technical phrases are of this description. Each has a distinct meaning, which is frequently indicated by the derivation ; or which, at all events, is familiar to those who follow the particular branch or science.'

We proceed to give some abridged examples of the author's analyzing labours, and shall endeavour to select them among words similar in sound and etymology to those in our own language :

' *Aider, seconder* ; "to aid, to second." The latter seems to convey a stronger idea than the former. We "*aid*" by merely lending the hand ; when we "*second*," we do something more. He who "*aids*" may confine himself to support ; he who "*seconds*" may be said, in a manner, to replace, or render himself the counterpart of the person seconded.' —

' *Assimiler, comparer* ; "to assimilate, to compare." We "*assimilate*" things which are or seem to be alike ; we "*compare*" those which have resemblance or appear to approach to it. The former conveys the impression of absolute identity, the latter of partial identity, or rather conformity.' —

' *Ame, cœur* ; "soul, heart." A man without feeling, a man of mean inclinations, has no "soul ;" a coward has no "heart." —

' *Vainqueur, victorieux* ; "conqueror, victor." The former conveys the idea of absolute success ; the latter may be limited to one great advantage. Nothing resists a "conqueror ;" he subjugates and gives laws ; the "victor," after a career of success, may act the part of a "conqueror," unless he be doomed to encounter obstacles still more serious than those which he has overcome.' —

' *Fortuné, heureux* ; "fortunate, happy." The former may be merely a favourite of fortune ; the latter is a sage who knows how to be contented with what he possesses ; enjoying what he has, and dispensing cheerfully with that which he cannot obtain.' —

' *Infortuné, malheureux* ; "unfortunate, unhappy." To be "unfortunate" does not, like "unhappy," imply disquietude of conscience. Children abandoned at their birth are very "unfortunate : " but they do not necessarily become "unhappy." —

' *Fourni, pourvu* ; "furnished, provided." "Provided" is always understood to convey a notice of previous care and arrangement. We seldom find ourselves "furnished" with all that we want if we have not "provided" it before-hand.' —

' *Haleine, respiration* ; "breath, respiration." "Breath" is the air which we exhale ; "respiration" is the play of the lungs in exhal-

ing the air after we have taken it in. A feverish patient may have a strong "breath," while his "respiration" is confined and difficult.' —

' *Indice, marque* ; "sign, mark." A "sign" assists us to know; a "mark" enables us to recognize. The "sign" leaves a doubt; the "mark" is clear and manifest.' —

' *Il paraît, il semble* ; "it appears, it seems." Either is a suitable expression for the conveyance of a modest opinion, and the one may frequently be used for the other. "It appears" perhaps expresses more properly an opinion founded on outward look; while "it seems" is applied to an opinion given as the result of examination or reflection. The sun "appears" to rise and to set daily; and the illusion is so complete that it "seemed" a reality, until the days of Copernicus.' —

' *Héritier, successeur* ; "heir, successor." The latter is the more general word. We "succeed" to whomsoever we replace; and we may replace a person in his life-time: but we can "inherit" from the dead only.' —

' *Conséquence, importance* ; "consequence, importance." "Importance" refers to the actual value of things; "consequence" to the effects which may arise. The words are used almost indiscriminately, because in either case a serious share of attention is requisite. We can scarcely be too circumspect in our conduct; since things of small "importance" may prove of considerable "consequence." ' —

' *Désunion, division, dissension, discorde* ; "disunion, division, dissension, discord," all express misunderstanding, but in different degrees. "Disunion" separates those who had been previously united; "division" goes farther, and removes them from each other; "dissension" expresses, in addition, an opposition of views and plans; while "discord" arms one against another, from hatred or jealousy, and makes each aim at the other's ruin.' —

' *Examen, discussion, disquisition* ; "examination, discussion, disquisition." An "examination" implies, generally, considerate reflection on a subject with which we wish to become acquainted; "discussion" means an examination made in detail, by opposing one side of a question to another; while "disquisition" denotes exact investigation. "Disquisitions" should be left to the learned, or to those who have the patience to undertake "discussion" with the spirit of analysis: but he must be a fool who embarks on any serious affair without a previous "examination." ' —

' *Riche, opulent* ; "rich, opulent." The "rich" man has a fortune that is abundant for the supply of his wants, whether we mean the wants of nature or of his station in society. The "opulent" man should have, in addition, the means of procuring the superfluities of luxury; that is, of supplying imaginary wants. A miser, by adding thousands to thousands, increases his "opulence" without making himself necessarily a "rich" man, the idea of "rich" being connected with a correspondence between our means and our wants. *La Bruyère* defines the "rich" man to be "he who receives more than he consumes." ' —

' *Origine*

• *Origine, source, principe* ; "origin, source, principle, or beginning." Strictly speaking, there is only one "beginning" in nature, a "beginning" above our comprehension. "Sources" are second causes, beyond which we seem unable to carry our thoughts; and an "origin" denotes the first appearance of effects produced, and rendered open to the observation of sense by second causes. A geographer seeks the "origin" of a river at its "source," but he would look much higher for the "source" of sources — the "beginning." In a moral sense, our weakness is the "beginning" or fundamental cause of our ignorance; ignorance is the "source" of our errors; and the "origin" of almost all our evils will be found in some error.' —

• *Éléments, principes* ; "elements, principles." These words are used by way of title to certain theoretical books of science or art: but "elements" are properly indispensable ideas which must be kept in mind, while "principles" are precepts of which the usage must be acquired that we may understand their application. Were I to succeed in making this book a good one, it would contain a part of the "elements" of the French language, but those who wish to acquire the "principles" of the language must have recourse to a grammar.' —

• *Théorie, speculation* ; "theory, speculation." These words are synonymous in as far as they convey an idea of that which has existence in the understanding only, in opposition to practice: but, in other points of view, "theory" is in fact an art, while "speculation" is only the act of a mind exercising itself in the abstract. The one reduces into principles ideas acquired by meditation, and forms from them rules for observation in practice; the other calculates, combines, and frames plans or projects. Either may be true or false, wise or foolish: but "theory" resting on observation amounts to certainty as long as that observation or the use made of it is exact; while "speculation," resting always on supposition or on facts viewed through an exaggerated medium, can offer nothing beyond a greater or less degree of probability. All "theories" are necessarily the result of long continued study and deep "speculation." In trade, "speculations" seldom succeed unless they are founded on sound "theory;" that is, on rules judiciously drawn from previous experience and reflection.'

Without undertaking to warrant the accuracy of the author on all occasions, we have extracted enough to shew that his book forms an useful addition to the previous labours in this important department of language. If he does not write with the grace and vivacity of *Girard*, nor with the erudition of *Roubaud*, he has the merit of copiousness in his explanations, and of never desiring his reader to admit a meaning on mere assertion. We have accordingly no hesitation in stating our conviction that, agreeably to the hope modestly expressed in his preface, he has afforded a contribution to French philology which is of some importance in itself, and is calculated to stimulate others to corresponding exertions. His fault seems to consist in not unfrequently recording unnecessary distinctions.

tions. Such differences, for example, as that between 'sickness' and 'infirmity,' are too obvious to require explanation: but we cannot shut the book without expressing our satisfaction as well at the utility of its contents as at finding it almost entirely free from that fulsome adulation of government which has of late disgraced the French press.

ART. VI. *Le  ons de Min  ralogie, &c. ; i. e. Lectures on Mineralogy, delivered in the College of France, by J. C. DELAM  THERIE.* 2 Vols. 8vo. About 600 pages in each. Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 10s. sewed.

THESE lectures may be regarded as a new and much improved edition of the author's first and second volumes of the *Theory of the Earth*, which really constitute a treatise on Mineralogy. With no desire of derogating from the merit of various recent works of a similar description, M. DELAM  THERIE conceives that, in the infantine and fluctuating state of the science which he has undertaken to expound, its elementary details would require to be re-published almost every year. When we mention that he comprizes his subject in sixty-nine short lectures, it will be readily perceived that he can scarcely escape the imputation of brevity and dryness: but enthusiasm can find charms even in volumes of definitions and descriptive catalogues; and the adept in mineralogy will admire the quantity of essential information that has been condensed within such narrow limits. Considered merely as a text-book, the present performance is intitled to great commendation, because it contains a very ample enumeration of the known mineral substances, and statements of their discriminative characters.

Though printed in the form of an introduction, the first six lectures involve the discussion of the general and fundamental doctrines of the science, and are therefore to be regarded as not less necessary to the completion of the system than the various particulars relative to the respective species. The economical benefits to be derived from the study of the mineral kingdom are distinctly noticed, and might have been illustrated at greater length; and the same remark applies to the history of that study, which is traced with too much slightness and rapidity. We must, moreover, beg leave to demur to the unqualified assertion that the science of mineralogy is, at this day, as much advanced in its progress as the other branches of natural knowledge; since, if such were the state of the fact, its nomenclature would be far less unsettled, and the author would surely dispense with an annual remoulding of its first principles.

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The *external* characters on which he chiefly insists, in the course of his descriptions, are colour, aspect, lustre, transparency, refraction, touch, savour, odour, sound, and adherence to the tongue; the *physical* are, hardness, weight, rigidity, or flexibility, fusibility, nature of the glass, (obtained by fusion,) electricity, magnetism, phosphorescence, streak, powder, malleability, tenacity, ductility, solubility in water, fracture, figure, and molecule; and the *chemical* are, effervescence in certain acids, solubility in acids or alkalis, gelatination in acids, and the results of analysis. 'The mineralogist' (he observes) 'is obliged to have recourse to all these characters, in order to acquire a complete knowledge of all minerals, a circumstance which involves him in considerable labour: but an exercised eye usually recognizes a mineral merely by its aspect. Every mineral has a physiognomy, which we cannot define: but long habit easily distinguishes it, and in a manner sufficiently certain to be seldom mistaken.' It is almost unnecessary to add that several of the characters in the author's list have not yet been ascertained with respect to many substances, and are in consequence either left blank or omitted in the descriptions.

Some writers, it is well known, lay great stress on *colour* as a discriminating character, while others deem it of scarcely any significance. The author inclines to neither extreme, and seems more fairly to estimate its real amount; for it cannot be denied that, in certain mineral productions, (as in the metals and their oxyds,) in several varieties of ores, in sulphur, coal, anthracite, plumbago, the pure earths, &c. it is tolerably stable and uniform; whereas in stones it is liable to such diversities that we can seldom rely on it with any degree of safety. M. DELAM  THERIE likewise very properly states a distinction between *white* and *colourless*, qualities which have been too often confounded. The different degrees of lustre he expresses by a scale of cyphers; 10,000, that of a colourless and spotless diamond, being the maximum. Complete transparency, in like manner, as that of the purest diamond, is denoted by 10,000; semi-transparency by 1000, translucency by 100, and opaqueness by zero. From the fine experiments instituted by M. *Malus*, it results that all diaphanous mineral substances, and the various chemical products, which are susceptible of crystallization, are indued with double refraction; except those which crystallize in cubes, or regular octa  drons.

The author has obviously bestowed much attention on the physical characters, several of which he also indicates by numbers; though, after all, many of them are to be received only as approximations. Even the crystalline figures are shewn to be, in many cases, no infallible tests of species. Among the

arguments which are advanced in proof of this last position, we may notice the ensuing :

' Rutile and osanite give equally the same products on chemical analysis ; and yet all their characters are so different that their separation into two species is unavoidable. We may therefore regard the following proposition as a general truth :

' *The same chemical principles may, in consequence of different geometrical positions, form integral molecules which have no common resemblance.*

' Hence, the same chemical principles may, in like manner, form minerals which do not resemble one another, and which will differ sufficiently from one another to constitute distinct species. Limestone and arragonite afford a very remarkable example. Some other minerals, of which the characters are sufficiently different to occasion a difference of species, seem nevertheless to be composed of the same principles. *Vauquelin* has obtained from the garnet and the yanolite nearly the same principles, and yet they are two very distinct minerals.

' This truth, accordingly, which I was the first to announce, in 1806, (*Journal de Physique*, tom. lxiii. page 70.) has been generally admitted, though without any mention of my name. *La Place* has recognized it in the supplement to the tenth book of his *M  canique C  leste*, page 70., printed in 1807 ; and *Ha  y*, in the introduction to his *Tableau Comparatif*, page 21., printed in 1809. *

' In consequence of supposing that the molecule of any given substance (as, for example, gypsum,) is a solid of certain dimensions, and its law of decrement ascertained, the different figures which the crystals of gypsum exhibit are assigned. Here we have, manifestly, two hypotheses which are not proved :

' 1. We suppose a particular figure belonging to the molecule of gypsum.

' 2. We suppose that the position of this molecule observes a particular law of decrement.

' Now, not one of these two suppositions is proved ; for we have seen that the cleavage of a given species of gypsum affords, apparently, a rectangular instead of a rhomboidal molecule. The laws of decrement, therefore, which are supposed from the rhomboidal molecule, can no longer accord with the rectangular.

' The calcareous molecule is imagined to be a rhomb of $101^{\circ} 55'$ and $78^{\circ} 50'$; whence such and such laws of decrement are supposed, in order to obtain all the various forms of the carbonate of lime ; but if this molecule be a triangular plane, having such or such angles, or

* In another passage, this sentence is repeated nearly verbatim. The author must, therefore, have felt somewhat sore on the subject. The fact, however, we suspect, was generally known to mineralogists prior to the date here assigned ; and we are much deceived if it be not more than once mentioned by *Patrin*, in the *Nouveaux Dictionnaire d'Histoire Naturelle*, which was published in 1803, 1804. Rev.

any other figure, then the supposed laws of decrement can no longer give these forms. — This is what Wollaston and *Malus* have lately proved.

‘ The same reasoning should be applied to all the other crystals. The supposed molecules, and the assigned laws of decrement, are simple hypotheses which are not proved. The discreet mineralogist, therefore, until these difficulties are explained, should confine himself to accurate descriptions of the different figures which crystallized minerals exhibit : but he will not go beyond facts.

‘ It should seem that the different crystallized minerals, as well as the other substances, should have molecules of a determinate form ; and, secondly, that these molecules should observe certain laws in their respective positions. The figures of the molecules which have been conceived, as well as the laws of decrement assigned, according to these supposed forms of the molecules, should therefore be regarded as mere hypotheses.

‘ Lastly, it is certain that the crystallized form cannot serve as a specific character for the recognition of mineral species.

‘ 1. Species very distinct have the same form.

‘ a. The tetra  dron occurs in the fahlers, copper pyrites, blend, &c.

‘ b. The same rhomb occurs in limestone, sparry iron, &c.

‘ c. The same cube occurs in the sulphurets of cobalt and iron, &c.

‘ d. The same octa  dron occurs in the sulphurets of iron and cobalt.

‘ 2. The greatest number of mineral species are not crystallized.’

The crystalline forms which mineral substances affect, and fifty of which are here particularized, are shewn to be traceable to three principal forms; namely, the triangular, rectangular, and rhomboidal. Eleven cases of the union or crossing of crystals (*marle*) are also stated, with a direct avowal of the difficulty which attends any attempt to explain the ph  nomenon.

We are willing to admit that the *nature* of mineral substances can be ultimately determined only by chemical analysis : but the learned Professor, when he justly states the importance of this criterion, might have safely enlarged on the imperfections and ambiguities to which it is still too frequently liable. At any rate, an evident incongruity is betrayed in broadly asserting, in one page, that *chemical analysis can alone determine mineral species, by assigning to them their constituent principles*, and, in another, that *chemical analysis alone is insufficient to characterize mineral species*. When we note this inconsistency, however, we perfectly concur with the author in recommending the union of all the ascertainable characters, whether external, chemical, or physical ; and we feel no hesitation in declaring that the chief excellence of the present publication consists in the uniformity of attention which it allots to this primary consideration.

In the fifth lecture, the reader will meet with some apposite remarks on the abuse of mineralogical nomenclature: but we cannot exculpate M. DELAM  THERIE himself from the charge of unaccountable clerical errors which deform his text, as *Caledonia* for *Chalcedon*, *ghicine* for *glucine*, *αββα* for *αββα*, *Κρυως* for *χρυως*, *Καυως* for *χαυως*, *Σιδως* for *Σιδνης*, &c. &c. *Mineralogy* is strangely deduced from *Mua* and *λως*; and, to add to the classical accuracy and profundity of the annotation, it is subjoined that the *mina* was a metallic coin used among the Babylonians, Egyptians, Phœnicians, and Greeks, and that its signification was afterward extended to all *minerals*! The Greek term for *quick-silver* is first inaccurately put down; and then, by way of explanation in the note, *υδωρ* (in the Roman character) is marked as the Greek for *water*!

In the section which relates to species, as applied to the aggregate stones or rocks, the author is too succinct and desultory; and the definition of *porphyry* which it involves is so far defective, that it limits the term to such sorts as have a *siliceous* paste. — The ten classes, under which the author has arranged his genera and species, are, Gases, Waters, Simple Combustible Bodies, not metallic, Metallic Substances, Alkalis, Earths, Acids, Neutral Salts, Volcanic Productions, and Fossils. Of these, the first two are hastily dispatched in ten pages. — *Anthracite*, among the combustibles, is described, in page 18., as never occurring in a *crystallized* state; and, in page 19., it is represented as perhaps held in solution in the waters of the great crystallization of the globe, and as having subsequently *crystallized*. — *Plombagine* (graphite) is said to occur *always* in primitive countries; whereas in Ayrshire and Dumfriesshire, it is intermixed with the columnar glance-coal of the Wernerians, and may be said to occur in what they term the *independent coal formation*. In stating the uses to which this substance is applied, the author should not have omitted that of diminishing the friction of wheels, &c. in machinery.

The different modes in which the metals occur in their native state, and the principal artificial operations to which they are subjected, after they have been extracted from the mine, are neatly and distinctly detailed. Under the article *gold*, the author mentions that he allowed to remain, for some months, in a flask, pure gold in sulphuric acid, with oxyd of manganese, and that a portion of the gold was dissolved.

We quote the article *Chromate of Iron*, not because it is one of the most copiously illustrated, but because it contains a concise view of the principal information which has yet been procured relative to this recently discovered substance. The only liberty which we take with the original is to reduce

sixty-three paragraphs into one; and we beg leave to suggest (*en passant*) that, by a similar economy of space, the size of the work might have been better adapted in more senses than one to the pockets of the student.

'*Chromated Iron. Pontier's Chromated Iron. Eisen Chrome*, of the Germans. *Iron mineralized by the chromic acid.* COLOUR, blackish. WEIGHT, 40,326. HARDNESS, 1100. FUSIBILITY. GLASS, green. FRACTURE, uneven. MOLECULE, undetermined. FORM, undetermined. FIRST VARIETY, confused crystallization. This ore of iron has been found at la Bastide-de-la-Carrade, near Cassin, in the department of the Var. The discovery belongs to Pontier, Mineral Engineer. Its colour is of a deep brown, almost blackish. Its weight is 4000. *Godon de St. Menin*, and *Des bas Syns*, who have devoted much of their attention to this chromate of iron, have obtained from it pure chromic acid, which they have crystallized. Its form is the regular octa  dron. *Vauquelin* and *Tassaert*, who have analyzed it, have procured from it Oxyd of Chromium 43, Oxyd of Iron 34.7, Alumina 20.3, Silica 2.—IId VARIETY, Chromate of Iron from Siberia. *Meder* has found Chromate of Iron on the banks of the Wiosga, in the Uralian mountains. *Lovitz* has extracted from it Iron... Chromic Acid 55, Silica... Alumina... *Laugier* has obtained Oxyd of Iron 34, Oxyd of Chromium 53, Alumina 11, Silica 1, Loss 1. *Klaproth* has obtained from a chromate of iron from Styria, Oxyd of Chromium, 55.5, Oxyd of Iron 33, Alumina 6, Silica 2, Loss 1.5.'

Although thirty-five species of the iron genus are enumerated and characterized, their respective geological situations are very imperfectly recorded; and the same remark may be extended to the author's mode of treating several metals.—Among the other particulars connected with the history of nickel, it should have been observed that it is found in meteor-stones, in the metallic state.—The new metals discovered by Sir H. Davy are inserted in their proper place; and the former simple earths take their station, as metallic oxyds, in front of the class of earths.

The author's view of the mineral acids and alkalis accords with the more recent discoveries in chemistry: but it is in course summary, and still very remote from perfection. In conformity with the same discoveries, the stones constitute a division of the class of neutral salts, and are considered under the ten orders of *Siliceous*, *Aluminous*, *Magnesian*, *Calcareous*, *Barytic*, *Strontianic*, *Zirconian*, *Glucinic*, *Yttrian*, and *Aggregate*. The subdivisions of the first nine orders are instituted from the combinations of the predominant earth with other earths, oxyds, acids, alkalis, &c.; and the aggregate sorts are arranged in three sections, according as their aggregation is effected by crystallization, immersion in a paste, or agglutination.

The

The *cat's-eye* is stated as the second species of quartz: but, having mentioned the diversity of opinions respecting its real nature, the author asserts that *Cordier* has *proved* it to be quartz, with amianthus; and, as the first variety of the next species is defined, 'quartz, mixed with very fine filaments of amianthus,' two species have been obviously instituted for two substances which are reported identical.

In a note on *Feld-spath*, we are told that it signifies in German, *spar of the fields*, 'an improper term, but which general adoption constrains us to respect.' — This etymology may be traced to *Buffon*; who tells us, on his own authority, that "the German chemists have doubtless called it *feld-spar*, because it would be first observed in pebbles of granite, scattered over the fields." *Rom   de L'Isle*, in like manner, informs his readers that feldspar, being one of the principal ingredients of the primitive rocks, should be frequently found on the surface of the earth, in the neighbourhood of the mountains: hence, without doubt, he adds, "the reason why the Germans have given it the name of *feld-spar*, which signifies *spar of the fields*." Subsequent writers have converted into positive affirmation the hasty conjecture of these two celebrated naturalists, and have taken it for granted that fragments of this substance are often found dispersed over the soil, among the *debris* of granites. This supposition, however, is not confirmed by observation; and all who are conversant in the geological appearances of territories denominated *primitive* are perfectly aware that, if in such districts nothing is more common than to meet with fragments of quartz, nothing, on the contrary, is more rare than to meet with those of felspar. The reason is obvious, because every primitive mountain presents numerous veins of quartz, whereas it is very uncommon to find a single vein of felspar. With respect to those portions of the latter which enter directly into the composition of granite, they are disseminated in morsels too minute to attract attention in the state of insulated fragments. When granite undergoes decomposition, no pieces of felspar of any considerable size are detached, because the process affects the felspar almost exclusively, the quartz forming a coarse sand, which the Germans call *g  bur*; and, if the granite be in a sound state, we may expect to find blocks, and not fragments, detached from the heights. The common derivation of the name, therefore, appears to be inadmissible; and the original orthography, *felspar* or *fell-spar*, i. e. the *spar of the fells*, or of the *rocky hills*, seems to declare the simple and genuine history of the term, besides that it is less harsh to the ear, and is more-over sanctioned by very respectable authorities.

Under

Under *Petrosilen*, a name which has occasioned so much trouble to modern mineralogists, M. DELAMÉTHÉRIE obviously confounds *chert* and *compact felspar*. His illustrations of the carbonates of lime afford various instances of the fallacy of *Hauy's* reasonings on the doctrine of crystallography; and the impropriety of several of the new appellations proposed by the same celebrated writer is shortly pointed out in the notes. In another part of the work, the complex and cumbersome *nomenclature* of the crystalline figures, by means of letters and cyphers, is very successfully exposed.

Near to the close of the second volume, we are presented with two or three sketches of the mineralogical excursions performed by the Professor and his pupils, in the environs of Paris. These rehearsals, from their *practical* and *active* complexion, somewhat enliven the more monotonous masses of preceptive instruction: but still they are too hurried and compendious to be generally interesting; and we make our bow to the veteran mineralogist under the impression that his work is more adapted to useful reference than to continuous study, or alluring perusal.

ART. VII. *Histoire des Croisades, &c.; i. e.* History of the Crusades. Part the First, containing the History of the First Crusade. With a Chart of Asia Minor; and Plans of Antioch, Jerusalem, and the two Battles of Dorylæum and Ascalon. By M. MICHAUD. Volume I. 8vo. pp. 575. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 16s.

UNDER the ignorance and superstition which prevailed in the middle age, the human intellect seemed paralyzed, and the social states in Europe fell to the lowest stage of degradation. Some powerful stimulus was necessary to raise the dormant powers of man; and such was then the internal condition of the countries of the west, that it would have puzzled a sage philosopher to have devised means of regenerating them, and of giving such an impulse to the political machine as would have introduced a new era. Mad, however, as the war of the Crusades must appear in the eye of reason, and disastrous as it was in its immediate results, it effected considerable changes in the state of civilization, and led to consequences of importance. Nothing but religious fanaticism could have united all the nations of Europe in one general cause. Throughout the age which we are now contemplating, the people of every community regarded themselves as belonging more to the church than to the state; and their zeal for what they deemed the honour of

of the Cross induced them to disregard their country, their personal property, and their lives.

It may not be very interesting to the generality of readers of the present day to follow such an historian as M. MICHAUD through the minute details of the Holy War: but to those who wish to obtain a correct knowledge of this period, such details must be of use, since, as he himself remarks, the character of the people who engaged in this wonderful enterprize can never be so precisely ascertained as by consulting the annalists of that period; because their very follies, exaggerations, and miraculous tales, if contemplated with a judicious eye, will help to discover the low state of knowledge and the credulity which stimulated the passions of all ranks. It was indeed a singular phænomenon, as Anna Commena, the daughter of Alexis I., observes, to behold the western world awake as from a sudden lethargy, and tear itself from its very foundations for the sake of precipitating itself on Asia: but the causes of this mighty explosion are not difficult to develop. A fashion, or rather a *passion*, for pilgrimages to the Holy Land had been prevalent in Europe from the time of Constantine the Great; whose mother, by her active zeal, had directed the attention of the Christian world to the spot on which our Saviour had preached and suffered;—and a visit to the Holy Sepulchre, which she had caused to be erected in the most sumptuous manner, was considered as the most acceptable of religious duties. When, in the revolutions to which states are subject, the city which contained this sepulchre, with the whole of Palestine, fell into the hands of Infidels, and pilgrims proclaimed the insults and persecutions which they suffered from the disciples of Mohammed, a general wish for the deliverance of this country from Infidels prevailed throughout Christian nations. All hearts were then turned towards Jerusalem; and even so far back as the era of Pope Silvester II. a project of arming against the Saracens was conceived. This Pope, previously to his elevation to the tiara, and during a pilgrimage which he himself had made to the Holy City, had witnessed the sufferings which the faithful were forced to endure in order to pay their devotions at the sepulchre of their Saviour; and on his return he endeavoured to excite the people of the west to take up arms against the Saracens.

‘It is impossible,’ says William of Tyre, ‘to make known the various persecutions which were at this time inflicted on Christians. Among the traits of barbarity cited by contemporary historians, one occurred which gave Tasso the idea of his affecting episode of Olindo and Sophronia. An inveterate enemy of the Christians, more effectually to inflame the rage of their persecutors, threw, during the night, a dead dog into one of the principal mosques of the city

city of Jerusalem. Those of the Moslems who first presented themselves at the hour of morning-prayer were struck with horror at the sight of such profanation, and proclaimed their indignation. In an instant, menacing cries echoed through the city; a tumultuous crowd assembled round the mosque; they accused the Christians, and swore to wash away in their blood this outrage on Mohammed. All the faithful were on the point of being immolated to Mussulman vengeance; and just as they were preparing themselves for death, a young man, whose very name history has not recorded, presented himself before them: "The greatest misfortune," said he, "that can happen is that the church at Jerusalem should perish: but when a whole people are menaced with destruction, it is just to sacrifice an individual for the salvation of the community: I offer myself at this moment to die for you; I leave to you to cherish my memory: I commend myself to your prayers." Pronouncing these words, he burst from the assembly, which was overwhelmed with tears, and surrendered himself to the chief of the Mussulmans, accusing himself of being the only person guilty of the crime which they imputed to the Christians in a body, and begging them to inflict on him that death which threatened his brethren. The Mussulmans, without being moved by so generous a self-devotion, satisfied themselves with the victim which was offered to their vengeance; the sword ceased to be suspended over the heads of Christians; and he who had immolated himself for them went, according to the expression of William of Tyre, to receive in heaven the reward reserved for those who burn with the fire of charity.

Other misfortunes, however, awaited the Christians of Palestine; all the ceremonies of their religion were interdicted; most of their churches were converted into stables; that of the Holy Sepulchre was completely overturned; and the followers of Christ, driven from Jerusalem, were dispersed over all the countries of the east. The old historians tell us that the world partook of the mourning of the Holy City, and was seized with trouble and dismay. The winter, with all its rigour, appeared in regions in which it had hitherto been unknown. The Bosphorus and the Nile were covered with ice. An earthquake was felt in Syria and Asia Minor; and its shocks, which were repeated for two months, overturned many large cities. We read in the Chronicle of the monk Glaber, that Europe has witnessed signs which were forerunners of great calamities; that a shower of stones had fallen in Burgundy; that a comet and menacing meteors had appeared in the heavens. Great was the agitation excited through all Christian countries; yet they did not then take up arms against the infidels, but discharged their vengeance on the Jews, whom all Europe accused of having excited the furor of the Mussulmans.' — 'At this epoch, a prediction which announced that the world was coming to an end, and that Jesus Christ would soon appear in Palestine, tended to augment the veneration of the people for the holy places. The Christians of the west arrived in crowds at Jerusalem, for the purpose either of dying there or of waiting the coming of their Sovereign Judge.'

In

In the 10th and 11th centuries, a passion for pilgrimages to the Holy Land invaded all orders of society. Princes and nobles, bishops, monks, and laymen, sought to expiate their crimes and to obtain the peculiar favour of heaven by a visit to the sepulchre of Christ, by praying on the Mount of Olives, or by washing in the river Jordan. The road to Palestine was covered with troops of pilgrims. Litbert Bishop of Cambray, in the year 1054, set out for the Holy Land, accompanied by more than three thousand pilgrims from the provinces of Picardy and Flanders. Ten years after this event, seven thousand from the borders of the Rhine commenced a similar journey; and the conflicts and sufferings which they endured, having been related by Ingulf, a monk of Normandy, helped to prepare the minds of the western nations for the approaching crusade. When the Turks obtained possession of Jerusalem, the sufferings of Christians became intolerable.

'Many who had quitted their families and their country, to visit the tomb of Jesus Christ, lost their lives before they came in sight of the Holy City; and those who, after having escaped a thousand dangers, arrived at Jerusalem, found themselves exposed to the insults of the new masters of Judea. The pilgrims of the Latin church, on their return to Europe, related all which they had suffered in their journey, and spoke with lamentation of the outrages committed on the religion of Jesus Christ. They had seen the Holy Sepulchre profaned and the ceremonies of the Christian church made the subject of ridicule by infidels; they had seen the patriarch of Jerusalem, and the venerable guardians of the holy places, dragged from the sanctuary, and led ignominiously to prison. These recitals, exaggerated by common report, were repeated from mouth to mouth, and drew tears from all the faithful.'

Now when it is considered that Europe, at this period, was a kind of religious community in which the preservation of the faith was the point of highest interest, it may be easily conceived what impressions were made on the multitude by the narratives of the pilgrims. When also it is considered that Hildebrand, afterward Pope Gregory VII., and his successor, were induced to encourage the idea of taking up arms against the Infidels, we are not surprised at the flame which was now about to break forth. It was reserved, however, for a simple pilgrim to enkindle and to spread over Europe that warlike zeal in the cause of religion, for which previous circumstances had prepared the minds both of rulers and their subjects. Peter the Hermit*, with the fervour of an apostle and the courage of a martyr, gave the signal for the crusade; and without

* Called in the Chronicle of the Counts of Anjou *Petrus Achircensis*.

fortune or fame, by the mere power of tears and prayers, he stirred up the nations of the West to precipitate themselves on Asia for the purpose of delivering Palestine from the dominion of the Turks. Animated by his interview with the venerable patriarch Simeon, when he visited Jerusalem, he vowed to be the interpreter of the wishes of the East, and to arm the West for the deliverance of the Holy City.

‘Persuaded that Heaven had appointed him to avenge the cause of the faithful, his enthusiasm knew no bounds. One day, as he was prostrate before the Holy Sepulchre, he thought that he heard the voice of Jesus Christ saying to him, “Peter! arise, hasten to announce the tribulations of my people; it is time that my servants should be succoured, and the holy places be delivered.” Encouraged by these words, which continued to echo in his ear, and provided with letters from the patriarch, he quitted Palestine, crossed the sea, landed on the coast of Italy, and hastened to throw himself at the feet of the Pope. The chair of St. Peter was then occupied by Urban II., who had been the disciple and the confidant of Gregory and Victor; and who embraced with ardor a project of which his predecessors had conceived the first idea, received Peter as a prophet, applauded his design, and charged him to announce the approaching deliverance of Jerusalem.’

Such was the commencement of the Holy War, the preacher of which was so well qualified for the task which he undertook. He flew from country to country, and from city to city, exciting by his appearance and by his powerful eloquence all Christians to take up arms. Every where was he received as the messenger of God; the people deemed it a happiness to touch his garments; and, moved by his discourse, by the crucifix which he carried in his hand, and by the spectacle which he himself presented, they raised their voices to Heaven, imploring the Almighty to interpose in behalf of his favoured city. Some offered their riches, others their prayers, and all promised to sacrifice their lives for the furtherance of the Holy War. At the council of Clermont, at which Peter assisted, dressed in the coarse habit of a hermit, the speech of Pope Urban surpassed in animated eloquence that of the Cenobite. All who were present caught the enthusiasm which it was calculated to inspire; on his holding up the cross, all swore to follow it as their standard: they assumed it as their banner and their badge; and the title of *Crusade* was then given to the war in which they were about to engage. From this moment, the deliverance of Palestine was the sole object that animated all the inhabitants of the West; and every interest or consideration was absorbed in this mighty project. Never, perhaps, in the history of man, was fanaticism at a higher pitch, and more universally diffused. Princes quitted

their thrones, monks their cloisters, and robbers their retreats in forests, in order to engage in this holy warfare ; — even women appeared in arms.

‘ Europe resembled a place of exile from which all hastened to fly. Artizans, merchants, and labourers, abandoned the occupations by which they subsisted ; barons and landed proprietors gave up the domains of their fathers. Lands, cities, and castles, which were the usual causes of war, lost all their value in the eyes of their owners, and were sold for small sums to those whom the grace of God had not touched, and were not called to the happiness of visiting the holy places and of conquering the East.’

Under such impressions, large armies, or rather crowds of armed pilgrims, were easily assembled. At the council of Clermont, in November 1096, the departure of the *Crusades*, or warriors of the crusade, was fixed for the feast of the Assumption, in the year following. The whole winter was appropriated to the preparation ; and in the spring, Peter put himself at the head of an army which amounted at first to nearly 100,000, and which was greatly augmented by the Germans and people of other nations : but, though a monk could inflame the zeal of so vast a multitude, he was wholly unable to direct it. Disorder, violence, and defeat attended this rabble in their march, and soon brought disgrace on the first crusaders. At Nice, *Gauthier*, the second in command, who was better qualified for the office of conducting an army than the Hermit, after having seen his mutinous troops defeated by the Turks, fell, pierced by seven arrows. Of 300,000 men only three thousand remained, who fled to a castle on the sea-shore ; leaving the bones of their comrades to mark the route to the Holy Land. Peter himself became disgraced among the crusaders, and from the rank of General was obliged to resume his original station as a mere pilgrim.

Taught by dear experience, the second expedition, which left the West for the Holy Land, was composed of more regular troops, who were conducted by a more able General. Godfrey of Bouillon was the leader on this occasion ; and under him all those traits of heroism and chivalry were displayed, which formed the most brilliant era of the Holy War.

M. MICHAUD, in the remainder of the volume, follows Godfrey and his subordinate commanders through the whole of their perilous march, recounts all their differences and disasters, and gives a minute account of the battle of Dorylæum, of the celebrated siege and battle of Antioch*, of the taking
of

* In the battle of Antioch, the Turkish army, over which the crusaders obtained a decisive victory, is said to have been 600,000 strong

of the Holy City, and of the subsequent battle of Ascalon : but we shall not copy any of these details, because they may be found, though not at equal length, in the pages of some of our English writers. We know not whether M. MICHAUD will thank us for the compliment, but we shall recommend the volume before us as forming a valuable commentary on Tasso's fine epic, "*The Jerusalem Delivered*."

As a finale to the history of the first crusade, which employed an army of 600,000 men, a comparison is instituted between this invasion of Asia by the crusaders and that which was undertaken by Alexander the Great, who is said to have conquered it with an army of 30,000 infantry and 10,000 cavalry.

'It is probable,' observes the author, 'that the Greeks who have written the history of Alexander have diminished his forces, in order to augment the glory of his victories : but, however this may be, we must admit that the expedition of the victorious Macedonian did not present the same dangers and stumbling-blocks which opposed the enterprise of the crusaders. The army which passed from Greece to Asia had less to suffer by change of climate, and by the length and difficulty of the route, than those who invaded it from the extremity of the west ; and the Macedonians, in their invasion of the east, had scarcely any foes to encounter besides Persians, an effeminate nation, often previously conquered by the Greeks : while the crusaders had to traverse through the countries of various unknown and barbarous people, and on their arrival in Asia found themselves opposed by many conquering nations.'

'The Greeks under Alexander did not enter Asia in order to carry there new laws, or to change the customs and religion of the people ; indeed, they sometimes adopted the usages and habits of the Persians, which greatly facilitated their conquests. On the contrary, in the case of the crusaders, we see two religions armed against each other, which redoubled the hatred of the combatants, and prevented all accommodation. No sooner did the flag of Mohammed float on the walls of a city, than it gave the signal for Christians to fly ; while the standard of the Cross presented a similar notice to the Moslems. As most of the Mohammedan cities which fell into the hands of the crusaders were deserted, they were obliged to repeople them from the provinces which they had invaded, and to weaken their forces to establish a sort of colony in the places where their arms had triumphed. No wars are so bloody as religious wars ; and in none is it more difficult for the conqueror to extend and preserve his conquests. This observation is of importance in enabling us to appreciate the result of this crusade.'

'On all occasions which called for bravery, nothing was to be compared with the exploits of the crusaders. When reduced to a

strong. M. MICHAUD reports their loss in killed at 100,000 : but, as exaggeration was the character of the historians of the Holy War, we apprehend that these numbers far exceed the truth.

small number of combatants, they were not less triumphant over their enemies than when they had innumerable armies. Forty thousand crosses made themselves masters of Jerusalem, which was defended by a garrison of 60,000 Saracens; and scarcely 20,000 remained under their flag when they encountered all the forces of the east on the plains of Ascalon.

‘ If Alexander effected greater things, and conquered a greater number of countries, it was because he commanded a disciplined army, and was the absolute chief. All the military and political operations were directed by the same mind, and by an individual will. It was otherwise in the army of the crusaders, which was composed of many different nations, and commanded by a great number of chiefs; a circumstance which contained the fatal germ of licence and disorder. The feudal anarchy, with which Europe was troubled, had followed the defenders of the cross into Asia; and the turbulent spirit of the knights, who were incessantly appealing to their swords, was the very cause which arrested and narrowed their conquests.’

M. MICHAUD also institutes a comparison between the expedition of the Christians to the Holy Land and the attack of the Greeks on the city of Troy:

‘ These two wars, though differing in their motive, offer the same results to an enlightened observer. Both present striking lessons in politics, and illustrious models in valour; both have given birth to new states and new colonies, and have established relations between distant countries: both have had a marked influence on the civilization of the ages which followed them; both, in short, have developed great passions and striking characters, and have furnished the most beautiful subjects to the epic muse, which cannot proceed without the machinery of prodigies and miracles.’

From these reflections, it will be seen that M. MICHAUD is not a mere narrator. He has closely studied his subject, and may be classed among those who should be read in order to ascertain the influence of the expeditions to the Holy Land on the state of manners and civilization in the countries of Europe. —For some other recent French productions on this subject, we may refer to M. R. Vol. lx. N. S. p. 466. and Vol. lxii. p. 539.

ART. VIII. *Tableau Historique, &c.*; i.e. An Historical, Geographical, Military, and Moral Picture of the Russian Empire, by M. DAMAZE DE RAYMOND, formerly *Chargé d’Affaires* in the Republic of Ragusa, Member of the Electoral College of the Department of Lot and Garonne, &c. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 1017. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 10s. sewed.

M. DE RAYMOND appears to have taken advantage of the interest excited by the commencement of hostilities in 1812. between France and Russia, to compile a description of the latter

latter country. He acknowledges, indeed, that the desire of profiting from that cause made him accelerate his publication, but he adds that the plan was conceived before the occurrence of the political circumstances in question. In compliance with the practice which has of late years characterized the French press, he has prefixed some general remarks expressive of admiration of the French government, and of a confidence of its success in all its undertakings; and he is thus led to a parallel between Russia and France, in which all the advantages are, in course, on the side of the latter: but it is due to candour to remark that, in other parts of the book, we meet with few deviations from impartiality. — The author expresses his obligations to several writers, particularly to M. *Malte Brun*, who is well known as a statistical writer on the northern countries of Europe, and whose report of Poland came under our observation a few years ago*. The printed works of German authors and English travellers have also engaged his attention, and are passed by him in review in a very explicit and summary manner. The Germans, he says, were the first who taught the Russians their true history: but the best book on the subject, in his opinion, is that of his countryman, M. *L'Evêque*. Among the English, Swinton, he says, carries his plan of panegyric so far as to make an apology for the system of slavery; Coxe is declared to be too partial to Catharine II.; while Dr. Clarke, with still harder measure, is pronounced to be *un détracteur passionné*. Porter is dismissed with the mortifying appellation of '*superficiel*;' and the praise of the author is confined to the *Voyage de deux Français*, and to the recently published letters of Count *Fagnani* from Petersburg in 1811. He makes comparatively little mention of Mr. Tooke, whose account of the Russian empire we reviewed, at considerable length, in our xxxth and xxxist Vols. N.S.

In pursuance of the plan of making his work historical as well as geographical, M. DE R. appropriates two hundred pages of his first volume to an historical sketch of Russia, bringing down the narrative to the death of Paul I. This is followed by a statistical report of the empire, under the several heads of climate and physical circumstances; population, manners, agriculture, and commerce; literature and literary establishments. In the second volume, we have a variety of observations on the national manners of the Russians; a description of Petersburg, Moscow, and the intervening towns; an account of Russian Lapland, Siberia, Kamschatka, and Tartary; with the state of society among the Cossacks, Calmucks, Ostiacks, and other rude tribes, who compose the heterogeneous population of this

* M. R. Vol. lix. N. S. p. 522.

vast empire. We shall quote the substance of his observations on the military department, and follow them with a succinct specimen of his manner of describing national customs ; taking as examples the Cossacks who are among the more civilized divisions of the Russian empire, and the Baschkirs who rank among the more barbarous.

Russian Army.—The Russian troops were merely temporary levies until the 16th century, when the Czar John II. formed a standing force under the name of Strelitzzy or Strelitzes. Fire-arms were at that time introduced, and military exercises were performed in the season of peace. The number of the troops, during the course of that century, is said to have been about 40,000. About the middle of the 17th century, the Czar Alexis, grandfather of Peter the Great, intermingled foreign officers, more particularly Scots and English, in his military service, and organized his troops into regular regiments. Peter, also, succeeding to the crown towards the end of the century, lost no time in giving an improved character to his military establishment. The Strelitzes having repeatedly acted the part of the Prætorian guards at Rome, and of their brethren the Janissaries at Constantinople, the Czar found it necessary to reduce them, and to substitute a force of a different disposition and character. Two foreigners, Generals Gordon and Lefort, accustomed his troops to European tactics ; and Bruce, a native of Scotland, was the first who introduced into Russia a regular corps of engineers. Peter, impatient to display the force of his new engine, ventured to make war on the Swedes, and hazarded the battle of Narva against Charles XII. : the issue was a complete overthrow : but the relative numbers have been strangely misrepresented in history, the Swedes amounting to 18,000, and the Russians to 40,000 ; a disproportion sufficiently great, it is true, but much inferior to that which is commonly reported. After this failure, a cautious and retreating policy became the alternative of Peter, until the operation of time in improving his army, and the imprudence of Charles in advancing too far into a wild country, gave him an opportunity of taking his revenge in 1709 at Pultawa. Here, at the cost of only 5000 men killed and wounded, the Russians caused to the Swedes a loss of double the amount in the action, and succeeded immediately afterward in forcing the remainder, to the number of 20,000 men, to surrender. At the death of Peter, the military force of Russia might be calculated at 140,000 men. The subsequent changes were not considerable until the reign of the late Empress, who made very large additions to her army. To judge from the returns on paper, the Russian troops appear to exceed those of Austria, and to be second only to those of France : but it is a matter of great difficulty to ascertain their effective number ;

number ; and we shall not be far wrong in putting them, at the highest, at 340 or 350,000 men ; being about one-fourth less than the troops in the pay of the French government in time of war.

• The immense distance which the Russian recruits are obliged to march, in order to join their regiments, is often very injurious to their health. On leaving their relations, they receive presents which enable them to indulge to excess in the use of ardent spirits ; a practice which is the more immediately destructive on account of their being unaccustomed to it in their early years. Their accommodations when on service are extremely indifferent ; they sleep more frequently on the bare ground than on straw ; and, on mounting guard, the custom is to continue the duty every night for a fortnight. Their hospitals, though sufficiently supplied on the part of government, are badly managed by the superintending officers : many of whom are suspected of enriching themselves at the expence of the unhappy invalids. To these disadvantages, we must add the pernicious effects of change of climate on youths arriving from such distant regions. We need not, consequently, be surprized that the lower orders in Russia have a strong dislike to the military service ; and they cannot flatter themselves with any thing in the shape of promotion, the rise of a private soldier to high rank being more rare among them than in any other army in Europe. On obtaining a victory, it is common to give medals to the soldiers engaged : but this premium loses much of its value from being very generally distributed, and from the distant prospect of a return to those relations and acquaintances to whom it is most gratifying to display such tokens of approbation. On the other hand, from the simplicity of dress, the Russian soldier is much less troubled than the German with keeping his clothes in order, and the infliction of corporeal punishment is not of very frequent occurrence. From the practice of marrying youths at the early age of 16 or 17, it often happens that the Russian soldier has the additional mortification of leaving at home a wife, and perhaps children. — The constitution of a Russian regiment is as follows, besides the commissioned officers :

Drummers, fifers, and musicians,	-	-	57
Pioneers and sappers,	-	-	48
Armourers,	-	-	2
Regimental clerks,	-	-	7
Barbers,	-	-	12
Hospital stewards,	-	-	1
Regimental provost,	-	-	1
Beadles in the service of the priest,	-	-	2
Hospital overseers,	-	-	4
Waggoners and carmen,	-	-	76
Servants of officers,	-	-	130
Non-commissioned officers,	-	-	120
Privates,	-	-	1740
			<hr/>
			2200
			<hr/>

‘The priests who perform the religious service of the regiment are very extraordinary characters. Though extremely ignorant, and frequently loose in their deportment, they are regarded by the common men with the most profound veneration. This confidence is often turned to account by the priest in a very selfish manner; and if we except their familiar acquaintance with the ceremonial of the Greek church, we shall be at a loss to discover in what the attainments of these ecclesiastics consist. The number of clerks is owing to the practice of transacting almost all military business in Russia by writing. The still greater number of regimental barbers arises from the plan, or rather the wish, to make those humble operators act in the capacity of surgeon: which they exercise with no small danger to the patient, the practitioner being sometimes unable to distinguish between a vein and an artery.’

In time of peace, winter is a season of repose to the Russians, the military exercises commencing only in April or May. Each regiment consists of twelve companies; and, in forming a new regiment, the plan is to withdraw eleven disciplined companies from as many standing regiments, replacing each with a company of recruits. — The Russians are of middling stature, and in general very healthy; an advantage which they owe partly to the steadiness of the climate, partly to the simplicity of their diet, and in some measure to the use of the warm bath. Their government proceeds on the scheme of mixing the levies of the different provinces, or rather different nations, among each other; because a collective classification of the natives of particular districts might be productive of serious attempts at insubordination. Twelve years of service intitle a soldier who can read and write, and who has passed three years in a subordinate station, to be made an officer: a prolongation of service to twenty years confers an exemption from personal chastisement, otherwise than by order of a court martial; and a farther extension of service to twenty-five years gives a title to a discharge, which, however, is not often accompanied with a pension: but easy duties in garrison-establishments, and in the police offices of government, form a provision for the retired soldier.

Russian Officers.—No service in Europe exhibits so marked a difference between the respective descriptions of officers. The men of family, and even those who, without possessing the advantage of either property or ancestry, have had the benefit of education, acquit themselves in general with the honour and propriety of gentlemen: but a third class, composed of the men who have risen from the ranks after the stipulated years of service, are strangers to those feelings, and discharge their duty chiefly through the influence of fear. The contrast between their new situations and their previous habits prevents them from filling the
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the former with credit, or even with satisfaction to themselves. The colonel of a regiment has, in time of peace, an almost absolute power over his officers; and an inferior labouring under punishment is not at liberty even to address a complaint to a General: but the infliction of corporeal punishment never takes place in the case of one who is a gentleman by birth. Seniority is the basis of promotion in the Russian service: but, as the captains of the guards enter into the line with the rank of colonel, it often happens that the Field Officers and Generals are young men. In other cases, a captaincy is seldom obtained before a service of fifteen years.

Cossacks. — 'The upper ranks among the Cossacks possess a considerable share of information. In visiting their capital, Tcharchaskoy, the traveller is much struck with the neatness of their gardens and country-houses; and they pique themselves on being an independent people, as they are no farther subject to the Emperor of Russia than in furnishing him with military levies: but it has lately become the practice to make them serve with regular troops, so that the Cossacks are in fact under the command of Russian colonels. The Cossack country is divided into Stanitzas or districts, each governed by an Attaman or chief. For several years, their warriors are pledged to foreign service at the will of the Russian government, but in the latter part of their career they may decline to go beyond the limits of the empire. They are men of great bodily strength and activity; jealous in a high degree of their independence; hospitable to strangers, but cruel in the field; and addicted (it is said) to plunder friend and foe, with little discrimination. They have in general strong passions, and are capable at one time of the most gallant conduct and at another of the opposite extreme. Their attention to cleanliness forms a striking contrast to the total neglect of it among the Russians, and is apparent both in their dress and in their habitations.'

The Bashkirs. — 'These men inhabit that part of Asiatic Russia, situated between the Wolga and the Ural, which forms the northern division of the government of Orenburg. They have small eyes, large ears, flat noses, and broad faces. They pass the winter around their fire-sides, and may be said to kill time in smoking and drinking the Tartar liquor, *koumis*. It is only in summer that they discover any exertion; and even then they take no farther trouble than to hunt or to look after their flocks, leaving all domestic labour to their wives. The rich mines in their mountains are allowed to remain untouched and unexplored, and even the threshing of corn is performed, not by flails, but by the feet of horses or oxen. Their religion is Mohammedan, mixed with a number of Pagan traditions and practices; since they are worshippers of the sun, and partake of no food that has not been exposed for some time to his rays. Women are bought and sold among them like mere articles of merchandise, and the manner of payment is by the barter of so many head of cattle. Their arms consist of a spear and arrows: but muskets and sabres have been lately introduced. Their military contingent to the Russian army is

in cavalry, for they are expert riders, and possess good horses. They have in a high degree the savage virtues of hospitality and respect for old age, but accompanied with the most disgusting filth and habits of gluttony. The supply of a military force constitutes their only tribute; and in truth it would be difficult to extract any thing else from a country in which the dwellings are only huts constructed of logs with the bark on, and affording in the inside no apartment, but a receptacle which serves at once for a kitchen, stable, and sleeping-room. The chimney is of clay, and the light is admitted through chinks or holes in the wooden walls, which are stopped with bladders oiled to render them transparent.'

State of Commerce. — In this respect, Russia exhibits many proofs of what may be called the infancy of civilization. The public roads have been for several reigns under the direction of government, and receive annually a certain degree of improvement and extension: but they are still far from having a resemblance to the high ways of England, France, or Germany. Fortunately, the severity of the winter has the effect of making travelling on sledges easy and expeditious; and in summer a similar advantage is enjoyed in those provinces in which the communication is carried on over a surface of turf, level, and little worn by the passage of carriages. In other parts, however, and particularly between Petersburg and Moscow, the road is formed in many places by logs of wood laid parallel to each other, which require very frequent repairs. Since the year 1797, the department of the post-office has been put on an improved footing; and it is hoped that a similar attention will be given to the extension of the internal navigation by rivers and canals, for which no country is better situated, the flatness of the ground making the rivers navigable for hundreds of miles without interruption. Such changes, however, must be the work of time; Russia being as yet very defectively provided with either capital or merchants. The limitation of imports to particular towns, the impolitic augmentation of many of the duties, and the excessive issues of paper-money, are all obstacles to the progress of trade; while the want of a title to property, in the cultivator of the ground, leads often to the unprofitable practice of hoarding the painful acquisitions of former years. Unfortunately, too, Russia, like Poland, is plundered by Jews, who contrive to obtain a monopoly of trade in particular provinces, to keep inns, and even to fill the stations of magistrates.

In considering the causes of the backward state of Russia, we must ascribe a large portion of them to its climate and geographical situation. In that part of the empire, whether Moscow or Petersburg, which has hitherto been the seat of government, the severity and intensity of the winter are such as to
impede

impede materially the beneficial consequences arising from the labours of the summer. Although the southern half of the Russian empire is exempt from this disadvantage, yet it is remote from intercourse with the civilized part of Europe, and has been governed by men who were wholly unacquainted with the powerful considerations which call for an improvement of civil administration. The rulers of this vast region have always been strangers also to the calculations which recommend peace to the political economist, and have had no other idea than that of extracting the utmost number of soldiers from their respective provinces. The limits of the empire have consequently been enlarged without a correspondent addition in point of internal improvement: but, whenever the Russian court shall alter its politics, the public may be prepared for an accession of power of much wider extent, and of a far more solid character, than that which followed the conquests of Catharine. In the habit of early marriage among the peasantry, and the simplicity of their mode of life, we are reminded of the circumstances which contribute so rapidly to the increase of population in Ireland. It will remain for the government only to create a spirit of industry, by affording security to the possession of its acquisitions. The discouraging reasoning circulated in late years on the subject of population will be considered as inapplicable to the case of Russia, where such extensive regions lie open to the cultivator. The climate, too, from the 57th degree southwards, is sufficiently favourable to the progress of agriculture, and, consequently, of other arts. From the 50th degree southward, the country has all the advantages of a warm and fructifying atmosphere; and we are induced to conclude that a more frequent communication with other countries is almost the only impediment to the advancement of this favoured region.

State of Literature. — In this as in other respects, Russia refers to Peter the Great as the author of important changes. He was the first of her sovereigns who accounted it politic to expend money in the collection of books or objects of art: he was the founder also of universities and academies; and he not only patronized the translation of foreign works into the Russian tongue, but attracted a number of German artists and men of science to a residence in his dominions. Since that epoch, the natives of Russia have made attempts to distinguish themselves in various departments of literature. Like other rude nations, they have succeeded best in poetry and the imitative arts, such as sculpture, painting, and architecture: but in studies of a graver cast, in those which require reflection and continued labour, they remain at a remarkable distance behind their neighbours in the west. Scarcely twenty years have passed since the

the appearance of the first philosophical work in their language, "The Elements of the Law of Nature, by *Solocznyky*;" and the number of printing-offices throughout the empire in 1803 was only 49. Some periodical works and news-papers have lately appeared at Petersburg, Moscow, Kalouga, and a few other principal towns. Moscow has had a Review since 1805, and might be considered the centre of the literature of the interior. The language also is said to be better spoken there than elsewhere. Petersburg, on the other hand, is the residence of literary foreigners, who have been induced to fix their abode there with a view to the improvement of the empire. The names of *Pallas*, *Euler*, and *Storch*, are familiar to men of letters, and sufficiently indicate the country to which the Russian court chiefly points its attention. Two-thirds of the books printed in Russia are translations, and consist principally of novels, plays, and other light productions. The total number of native works on all subjects was computed in 1787 at 4000; a stock which will not in fact be found to surpass the new publications that appear in England, France, or Germany, in the course of a few years.

These volumes contain a considerable share of useful information respecting the manners and state of society in Russia. Without pretensions to originality, M. DE RAYMOND has the merit of being a careful and judicious compiler; and he would have deserved a liberal share of confidence, had he not allowed his representations to have been influenced by a wish to flatter his own government. This disposition in some degree affects his historical as well as his statistical observations.

ART. IX. *Des Progrès, &c.*; *i. e.* On the Progress of the Russian Power, from its Origin to the Commencement of the Nineteenth Century. By M. L——. 8vo. pp. 514. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 12s.

WE have here another of the various publications which have been drawn forth by the war lately undertaken by *Bona-parte* against Russia: but its object is less a history of Russia, for which its size would be inadequate, than an exhibition of general results with regard both to a narration of the past and a description of the present. The author has attempted, he says, to study the 'operation of the power of Russia on other nations, and the re-action of the latter on her;' and in the few instances in which he has entered into more particular details, his aim, he adds, has been to make the latter subservient to the exposition of his general views. The historical part is compressed

pressed from the voluminous labours of his countrymen *L'Evêque* and *Le Clerc*; while the report of the actual condition of the empire has been derived from a variety of sources. German authors have been frequently consulted; and among our own writers Dr. Clarke is brought forwards as an authority of special importance. — It is easy to trace the calculating policy of the compiler of this volume. He publishes it because Russia was become an object of general attention; and, in order to keep up the importance of his subject, he has no objection to exhibit her as a power of the first magnitude: but, in the true Parisian spirit, it is stated that the ‘Great Napoleon is destined to reduce her within those limits that will prevent her from being dangerous to the future tranquillity of Europe.’ The book was put to press at the time of *Bonaparte’s* invasion; and, unluckily for the author’s prophetic fame, the impression was struck off before the news arrived of the mighty Emperor having retraced his steps.

It enters into the politics of this courtly writer to bestow lofty encomiums on the Emperor Paul. ‘More disinterested than his mother, he was worthy (we are told, p. 337.) to exercise that protection which had now become necessary to the northern powers.’ His death is accordingly pictured not only as unjustifiable in the manner of its accomplishment, but as productive of the worst consequences. ‘Instead of a lasting hatred between England and Russia, a hatred excited by the misconduct of the former, we see a succession of mutual accommodations. That which a powerful fleet and insolent menaces were unable to accomplish was effected without delay or difficulty after the sudden death of Paul. Nothing was said about giving up Malta, or admitting the claims of neutrals: but the English were confirmed, with very little difficulty, in the possession of their property and privileges in Russia.’ These observations are followed by a notice of the unfortunate coalition of 1805, and of the campaigns of 1806 and 1807. The peace of Tilsit, and the wonderful friendship so suddenly conceived by *Bonaparte* for *Alexander*, are then described with the usual exaggeration of a Frenchman. The two Emperors pledged themselves to conquer a maritime peace and the restoration of the rights of neutrals: but unfortunately these fine hopes were disappointed; and the French were *shocked* by the discovery that the Russian cabinet had throughout kept an eye to its own aggrandisement in the arrangements professedly made for the common cause. *Bonaparte*, it seems, (p. 356.) consented in the most indulgent manner, in 1808, to allow Russia to prosecute her projects on Finland in the north, and on Moldavia and Wallachia in the south; and these sacrifices

were

were made, we are told, with the view of promoting the re-establishment of a general peace: but not a syllable is said of their being conceded for the sake of allowing *Bonaparte* to follow up quietly his designs against Spain. Russia, however, was not faithful to her compact; having, from the end of 1809, permitted the exportation to England of timber and naval stores: articles for which she was paid by receiving English merchandise into her harbours. Notwithstanding all this provocation, *Bonaparte* (p.362.) 'had the moderation to offer peace to England in 1812; and, the overture being treated with neglect, he had no choice but that of pouring forth his innumerable legions on infatuated Russia.'

After having finished the historical detail, the author proceeds to make some comments on the Finances of Russia: but he complains greatly of the difficulty of arriving at accurate conclusions, in consequence of the general ignorance and want of principle among the servants of government. It was computed that the Russian revenue amounted in 1795 to ten millions sterling; arising principally from a capitation-tax, and from farming the duties on brandy, salt, mines, stamps, and foreign merchandise. Large as this sum is, in a country in which money goes so far, it proved insufficient for the ambitious projects of Catharine; and the consequences were that recourse was had to the borrowing of considerable sums in Holland, and to the issue of paper-money. The former has for a long time been impracticable: but the issue of paper has been continued from year to year, until it has produced a serious depreciation of the circulating medium; and it is said that the present revenue, though apparently larger than that of 1795, does not in reality go so far in the way of expence. A similar obscurity prevails with respect to the extent of the public debt. We, who are familiarized with such sweeping sums in this country, may be disposed to smile on hearing that a debt of twelve or fifteen millions sterling is a very serious affair for the Russian finances. Such is the difference between a free and an absolute government, in the material point of public credit!

We have taken occasion, in reporting the productions of Dr. Clarke and Sir Robert Wilson, to qualify the common notion of the magnitude of Russian Armies: for in fact the splendid victories atchieved by them have been due to the energy of individuals like *Suwarrow*, and to the determined valour of the troops, more than to the power of numbers. Some time ago, it was customary to represent the armed force of Russia as equal to 5 or 600,000 men; forgetting that, in a country of so much irregularity respecting documents, it is easy

to keep names on regimental lists long after they have ceased to represent effective combatants ; and though the corps raised for the Russian service are large, they are subject to miserable diminutions from other causes than the activity of an enemy. The King of Prussia takes notice, in his *Memoirs*, of the great proportion of men that were lost by his Russian antagonists from sickness and neglect, in a comparatively short time :

“ After all that we are told,” says General *Manstein*, “ of the personal health of the Russians, we find them subject to various maladies, such as scurvy, inflammatory fevers, dysentery, &c. Out of a given number of sick, we may take it for granted that a third will die in consequence chiefly of the want of medical attendance. A regiment has only a surgeon and assistant-surgeon, who are seldom men of capacity ; and as for the field-surgeons, they are good for nothing, being selected in a random manner from among the recruits, the colonel merely fixing his eye on a peasant in the ranks, and commanding him to act as surgeon. It is in vain for the unfortunate individual to declare his dislike to the business, or his inability to acquire dexterity in performing operations : all excuse is fruitless ; he must set about it forthwith ; and if he be not sufficiently quick his talents are enlivened by the application of the cudgel.”

On this point, as well as on the want of staff-officers, the present writer has unfortunately the concurrence of Sir Robert Wilson : but they differ materially as to the merits of the Russian cavalry. Sir Robert alleges that this part of the Russian force is the best mounted of any on the continent, and that the whole of the interior economy is well regulated and administered * : while the Frenchman, on the other hand, asserts that the Russian horses are, with few exceptions, both originally bad and subsequently ill managed. The avarice of the colonels deprives them, he says, of a portion of their allowance of forage ; and the equipment of the dragoons is as much neglected as their instruction. The experience of the present campaign, however, is in favour of Sir Robert Wilson’s assertion.—In another point, the author of the work under review treats the Russians with much more complaisance :

* Of all the departments of the military system of Russia, the artillery is the least defective ; and it is the only kind of service for which the natives discover predilection and aptitude. The extent of abuse is here much smaller than in other branches ; promotion being confined to the corps ; and the officers, to the colonel inclusive, being accounted higher by one step than those of a similar denomination in the line. Still, however, the Russian artillery does not equal the French in point of precision and rapidity. In the engineer de-

* See M. R. Vol. lxxviii. p. 228.

partment, the want of education operates greatly against the Russians; so that in a siege, if we omit the service of assault, they are inferior to almost any other European nation.'

The author regrets much that Russia has not bestowed a larger share of attention on naval affairs. Peter the Great, he says, was aware that the Euxine, and not the Baltic, formed the proper sphere for the display of the Russian marine; the supply of timber from the Ukraine being a matter of much facility by means of the great rivers: but his disappointment at the Pruth, and his desire of ruling the politics of the North, induced him to take the false step of directing his naval exertions to the Baltic. Here again he trespassed in making Petersburg and Cronstadt his arsenals, instead of the port of Revel. Petersburg has been called an "undeserving favourite," and has been rendered the capital of the empire by a painful waste of treasure and manual labour. The freshness of the water in the Baltic is considered as prejudicial to the duration of shipping; and the Russian emperors, amid all their anxiety to construct men of war, have comparatively neglected the fundamental part, the encouragement of a mercantile marine. The present Russian navy consists of thirty sail of the line, half as many frigates, and about 200 small vessels, manned altogether by a force of 35,000 seamen. The Russians, however, have a great aversion to navigation; and the men who on land brave the rudest climate, and the greatest fatigues, are seen to shrink when ordered to go on board of ship and to face the dangers of the sea.—In point of internal communication, (as we observed in the preceding article,) few empires are more fortunate; the rivers in the interior being navigable throughout a great extent, and the level surface of the country being favourable to the formation of canals. Trade, however, has been hitherto little cultivated by the natives, and the foreign part of it has been chiefly in the hands of the British. 'We must confess,' says this writer, 'that the higher classes discover a marked predilection for those islanders; and it is an article in their commercial creed, that Russia cannot exist without an alliance with England.' The native merchants, few in number, are divided into distinct classes in proportion to their respective capitals; and it is the highest class only that can aspire to the rank of nobility.

Next comes the important topic of Education; and here the Gallic champion is equally animated with Dr. Clarke against the Russians. The mass of the people, according to him, is as backward at the present day as the rest of Europe was in the twelfth century: the schools are so few in number as to have very little influence; and nothing can be more shocking

than the ignorance of the teachers and priests. Families of condition have generally foreign tutors, who are received after very little examination, and owe their success more to their manner than their merit. It is in the art of imitation that the Russian displays unusual aptitude: but unfortunately this talent, extraordinary as it is, seldom leads to important consequences.

The conclusion of the volume is in strict conformity with the impressions which *Bonaparte's* cabinet is desirous of disseminating. Russia is exhibited as a power constantly on the alert for additional acquisitions, and never satisfied with the possession of present advantages. 'She negotiates,' it is said, 'for the purpose of deceiving; she fights only to destroy.' All this is affirmed with as much gravity as if France herself were wholly guiltless. Nay, this writer has the modesty to allege that France has long been desirous of promoting the civilization of Russia, while England has laboured to retard it: a contrast which arises, we are told, from the mercantile spirit of England prompting her to keep the rest of the world in a backward state, in order that foreigners may remain incapable of providing themselves with finished merchandise, and may be obliged to remain in the capacity of consumers of British goods.—On the whole, however, this volume is composed with ability, and supplies considerable historical and statistical information in a moderate compass.

ART. X. *Lettres inédites, &c.*; i. e. Unpublished Letters of VOLTAIRE, addressed to the Countess of Lutzelburg. To which is added, a Fac-simile of VOLTAIRE's Hand-writing, engraved by Miller. 8vo. pp. 139. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 7s. sewed.

THE anonymous editor of this little volume introduces it by a preface, or *discours préliminaire*, in which he takes great pains to acquit himself of the odium attendant on bearing a part in the circulation of obnoxious doctrines. 'These letters,' he says, 'like the rest of VOLTAIRE's correspondence, do more honour to his head than his heart. They discover that fluctuation of character which founds affection on momentary caprice, and that instability of principle which gives way in an instant to the influence of flattery when skilfully applied. The French Revolution has enabled the world to pass sentence on the philosophy of VOLTAIRE *, and a publication of his

* See also pages 462—464. of this Appendix.

correspondence should be regarded in the light of an antidote to the dangerous principles which he circulated in his more finished writings. — On seeing the real man before our eyes, we lose our blind veneration for the writer; and VOLTAIRE in his private correspondence may be compared to an actor behind the scenes.' These protestations, on the part of the editor, are followed by a short parallel between VOLTAIRE and *Rousseau*, to the advantage of the latter; and by an historical notice of the political occurrences between 1753 and 1764, the period comprized in the present correspondence.

Without disputing the propriety of the editor's animadversions on VOLTAIRE, and without questioning the sincerity of his dissent, we cannot help remarking that he has said much more than was necessary. The letters are not altogether new, a portion of them having been already given to the public in the edition of the author's works printed at Kell; while a still larger part of them might have been safely omitted as of very little importance. *Madame De Lutzelburg* was a contemporary of VOLTAIRE, little distinguished except by her family-rank; and his letters to her consist of almost perpetual complaints of bad health, mixed not unfrequently with effusions against the King of Prussia and other individuals of less eminence. They bear all the appearance of authenticity from the direct and sometimes careless manner in which they are composed. They were chiefly dictated to an amanuensis, agreeably to the celebrated writer's practice, and only a concluding sentence is said occasionally to have been written with his own hand. They discover, however, some happy strokes of humour, and some very animated illustrations of the favourite ideas of the author. — We shall translate detached passages, and arrange them under different heads as well as their miscellaneous nature will allow.

HIS BAD HEALTH.

' Colmar, October 1753.

' I came here so ill that I was not able to deliver in person your introductory letter to the First President.' — ' I have been endeavouring to obtain in the mountains of the Vosges that health which is no more to be found there than in other places. I have known misfortunes of all kinds, and my conclusion is that bad health is the greatest of all. Take care of yourself, Madam; support life, for when we have passed the season of illusions, we no longer enjoy life; we merely drag through it.' —

' I am told, Madam, that you are at the island of Jard; I always regret my absence from that residence, though it is entirely exposed to the north. During these three months I have not ventured to leave my apartment; — I should assuredly leave it, were I within a short distance of you.'

Geneva, April 1756.

'The celebrated *Tronchin*, who watched my unfortunate state of health in this place, has left me for the purpose of overturning prejudices in France, and inoculating our princes with the small pox. I have no doubt of his success, in spite of the clamour against him. His patients were all doing well, according to the last accounts. Madame *De Villaroy* is waiting for the next vacancy to be inoculated. The children of *M. De Rochefoucauld* and *M. De Belle-Isle* are contending for a priority. We are beginning to adopt this practice from the English. In London, you never hear of a lady dying of the small pox. Inoculation preserves them: but till of late we had not the courage to follow their example.'—'*M. De Beaufremont* ventured to do it some time ago in the case of one of his children, and was ridiculed. Had I a son, I would give him inoculation before I gave him a catechism.'

Lausanne, January 1757.

'I keep my room so warm, that I suffer from the flies in it, while from the windows I see nearly one hundred miles of snow-covered-ground. I have fitted up a house at Lausanne which in Italy would be called a palace. Fifteen windows look to the lake on the right, the left, and the front. A hundred gardens lie lower than mine, and the great mirror of the lake reflects their banks. I behold all Savoy on the other side of this small sea, and beyond Savoy the Alps which rise like an amphitheatre; and on which the rays of the sun form a thousand tints of light. *M. Desalleurs* had not a finer prospect at Constantinople. In so sweet a retreat I do not regret Potsdam.'

THE KING OF PRUSSIA.

September 1758.

'I am glad, Madam, that you believe in the existence of a Supreme Being. It is what I endeavoured to impress on a King who does not believe in one, and who conducts himself accordingly. He will encounter misfortune, but will die impenitent.'—

'The abridgement of Universal History, which you mention to me, is a work ridiculously printed, containing as many faults as lines. The King of Prussia seems destined to prosecute me. I gave him that manuscript more than thirteen years ago in a very imperfect state. He said that he had lost it at the battle of *Sóhr*, when the Austrian Hussars pillaged his baggage: but I have been told that they gave him back every thing, even to his dog. It is his librarian who publishes this manuscript in a mutilated and altered state. He pretends to have made a purchase of it from a valet de chambre of Prince Charles. All I know is that it has given great offence at court, and that I have had much trouble in appeasing the ferment which it caused. This private business has come to plague me at the very time when the confusion of public matters causes me a loss of property.—My only consolation is in labour and retirement.'

Colmar, October 1754.

'I confess to you that I had no expectation of passing eight hours successively with the King of Prussia's sister at Colmar. She loaded me with kindness, and made me accept a very handsome present. She

insisted positively on seeing my niece, and in short did every thing possible to repair the mischief inflicted on me in her brother's name. Let us conclude, then, that women are better than men.'

' November 1756.

' Ah! Madam, I place little dependence on the Russians. Who is to subsidize them? If they will be contented with taking payment with their own hands, I will call them *dear barbarians*. May God assist and bless Maria Theresa! But I see arrayed against her in the spring 150,000 Prussians in short coats, dragging the Saxons after them to dress their dinners. I see Hanoverians, Hessians, and English guineas. The Austrians should have taken their measures better; yet I have still hope in Providence. The last memorial of Solomon (the King of Prussia), accompanied by documents of justification, is a very imposing affair. His enemies must oppose actual success to him; arguments do not give an inch of territory.'

' Lausanne, 5th January, 1757.

' You give up Maria Theresa, then, since the King of Prussia has defeated her troops, re-entered Breslaw, and taken 40,000 prisoners! Ah! Madam, do not change with Fortune. — There was a time when you were a determined Austrian.'

' 9th February, 1757.

' The King of Prussia has written to me rather an affectionate letter from Dresden, dated the 19th January. — The Czarina wishes me to go to Petersburg, but I shall keep quiet in Switzerland. — I have had enough of courts.'

' 6th August, 1757.

' The Russians are advancing into Prussia. — The public enemy will be attacked on all sides. Long live Maria Theresa! Take care of your health, Madam, that you may see how these things terminate.'

' 2d February, 1759.

' The approaching death of the King of Spain, the attempts on the life of crowned heads, the friends of the King of Sweden perishing by the hands of the common executioner, and Germany swimming in blood, form altogether a frightful picture. However, people at Paris give themselves no trouble about these matters; there the public are as foolish as ever; always complaining, always laughing; always talking of misery, and always plunged in luxury.'

' 2d September, 1759.

[This was written after the defeat of the French at Minden, and the defeat of the Prussians by the Russians at Cunersdorff.]

' I am as much delighted, Madam, with the behaviour of the Prince of Brunswick to your son as I am afflicted by the fatal event which renders the Prince of Brunswick so great and the French so little. I am in hopes, Madam, that your son is by this time restored to you. If it were proper for me to write to the conqueror, if certain circumstances did not prevent me, I should not fail to congratulate him, not on his victory, but on the manner in which he has made use of it. The King of Prussia appears intitled to our sympathy; I consider him as more surprised at being defeated by the Russians, than M. De Coctades at being defeated by the Hanoverians.'

' October

' *October 1759.*

' I am always surprised that the King of Prussia holds out : but you will confess that his affairs are in a worse state than ours. Expelled from Dresden, and from the half at least of his states, surrounded by enemies, defeated by the Russians, and unable to replenish his exhausted treasury, I see nothing left for him but to come and write verses with me at my country-seat, or to retire to England, unless by some new miracle he finds means to defeat all the armies around him. It seems, however, that the present plan is not to fight but to undermine him. In that case, the fox will be taken, but we shall have to pay all the expences of this long hunt.'

' *Ferney, March 1761.*

' Where is your son at this time? I pity his horses wherever he is ; for I believe that their retreats are precipitate and their forage scanty. It is a pretty thing to have spent thirty millions sterling for our travels up and down Hesse Cassel during the last four years. We might have made the tour of the world for less money !—In my retirement, I have no news to mention except that my payments do not come in.'

The exchange of letters between VOLTAIRE and the Countess of Lutzelburg was not merely a business of compliment. The Countess carried on a very active correspondence with Madame *De Pompadour*, in the hope of obtaining the influence of that potent lady for her son's promotion in the army ; and Madame *De P.* was accustomed to return the most obliging answers, and to commission the Countess to execute various purchases for her in the way of dress, but always lamented that promotion was at the disposal of the ministers, who were too *stubborn* to attend to her applications. The consequence was that the Countess obtained nothing either for herself or for her son, who unfortunately fell in the beginning of 1762, in one of the last actions of the war. VOLTAIRE is supposed to have been assiduous to the Countess with the view of obtaining her favourable report with Madame *De Pompadour*, whose protection at the French court was not a matter of indifference to him.

When VOLTAIRE had private matters to urge, he was in the habit of sending off two letters at the same time, to his correspondents; one treating of the point in question, and the other devoted to general topics, in order that the party addressed might shew it about, or even get it printed, as a flattering mark of attention from a great man.—The following extracts are of a very miscellaneous nature :

' *October 1753.*

' I am remaining quietly in a solitude, waiting the arrival of papers on business. The dispatch of business of all kinds is tedious ;—you have a proof of it in your nephew's affairs. Mischances come upon us with winged speed, and seem to go off with a limping slowness.—To have patience is very insipid.'

About September 1760.

'I am taking my measures as well as I can to have still the pleasure of passing some days with you : but I am become so great a farmer and so downright a mason, that I hardly know when my cattle and workmen will be able to do without me. You and I, Madam, will leave the world as foolish and as wicked as we found it. I am told that there is a storm brewing at court which may fall on the head of a person whom you love, and to whom I am attached.'

'January 1761.

'How do you find your health, Madam, during this northerly wind? It is, I believe, the only enemy that you have. Reflect that the winter of life, so harsh and disagreeable to many persons, and which indeed it is rare even to attain, is for you a season that still has its flowers. You possess health of body and mind. It is true that your writing resembles the scratching of a cat : but in your best days your hand was not any better.' — '10th March. I met yesterday on the road a man with one eye, and I congratulated myself on possessing two. I next met a man with one leg, and I thanked my stars for having a pair, bad as they are. After having passed a certain age, this is our only way of enjoying ourselves ; there is nothing brilliant in it, but it affords us some consolation. Have you not been improving your garden? That is a resource not to be neglected. — I give you notice, Madam, that I have been laying out the finest kitchen-gardens in the whole country.'

'September 1761.

'I am not at present at my country-seat (the *Delices*). Only think that the Duke *De Villars* occupies that small house with his whole suite. I have lent it to him in order that he may be in the neighbourhood of Dr. *Tronchin*, who confers vigorous health on every one except me.'

'June 1764.

'We little thought that Madame *De Pompadour* would quit this scene before us ; her dream has been brilliant, but it has been very short. Ours is less splendid, but it is longer, and perhaps more tranquil ; for though she possessed the appearance of every comfort, she had her share of vexation, and the perpetual restraint of her situation may have had a tendency to shorten her days. After all, we are only butterflies, of whom some flutter a few hours, and others a few days. I have now remained ten years in my retreat, as you have done in yours. We are both of us constant, but I am not so wise as you ; so that you will live above a hundred years ; while I do not count on turning eighty.'

'August 1764.

'I regret Madame *De Pompadour* as you do, and I am sure that her place will not be adequately filled. She was fond of conferring a favour, and had the power of doing so : but my interest has no concern with the regret which I feel at her death. Having renounced every thing, and having no favour to ask, my feelings are those of the heart ; and I weep for your friend without any consideration that bears reference to myself.'

The

The volume concludes with an essay by the editor, containing some comments on the character and style of VOLTAIRE. This disquisition is agreeably terminated by a tale, in which a travelling party is represented as being stopped at a small country-town by an accident to their carriage. While the other travellers pass the tedious interval in amusement, one of them leaves the town, and repairs to a small monastery on the top of a neighbouring eminence. He enters, and converses with the Fathers on divinity, on the history of the Order, on the character of the Popes, and tells them a great many particulars in their own line with which they were unacquainted. So much knowledge, and such a complaisant manner, inspire the reverend brethren with an ardent desire to attach this wonderful theologian to their church; and they were exhibiting to him a flattering picture of the rank which he would attain, when notice was brought that, the carriage being repaired, their guest was about to be called away from them, and that his name was—VOLTAIRE.

ART. XI. *La Gaule Poétique*, &c.; i. e. Poetic Gaul, or the History of France considered in Connection with Poetry, Eloquence, and the Fine Arts. By M. F. MARCHANGY. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1813. Imported by De Boffe. Price 18s. sewed.

WE think that this book is well planned, and deserves imitation in the language of our own country. It contains a series of lectures on French history, drawn up for the purpose of displaying the advantageous topics which the annals of France offer to the artist. Whenever, among the celebrated personages of national antiquity, a situation occurs which is adapted for the painter, or an incident which is suited to the tragedian, or an event which is worthy of the epopea, such theme is brought out, and illustrated with notes and citations indicating where we should look for the costume, for the manners, and for the religious ideas of the personages concerned. Thus a general view of the heroic ages of antient Gaul is sketched with impressive outline, truth of local colouring is taught, and that popular instruction is promulgated which may suggest the enterprize, prepare the success, or facilitate the criticism of future works of art.

Probably the author has personal projects of the epic kind, and wishes for a specific invitation from the public, directing which of the meditated achievements he shall blazon on his shield. During his narrative at least, he chaunts several imaginary songs of bards, and declaims entire speeches of fabled orators, as if he had begun different epopeas, and was anxious

to preserve the fortunate fragments. "The Martyrs" of *Ghateaubriand* (see our lxiid Vol. N. S. p. 542.) seem principally to have tinged the cast of his ideas, and to have supplied the model of his style. This prose also is polished, picturesque, and pompous; and if less strangely rich in the spoils of living languages, it abounds with the neologisms of the antiquary. The genius of M. MARCHANGY delights in mythology; and, refined as he is by taste and prepared by erudition for a comprehensive polytheism, the gods of every religion live and move in his imagination.

The work is divided into ten lectures, or recitals, which all relate to the period anterior to Charlemagne. Additional volumes, no doubt, will direct similar attention to the somewhat later adventures which are so repeatedly celebrated in popular romances of chivalry. The subsequent and nearer periods will not bear so much boldness of fictitious ornament, and therefore must belong to the dramatic rather than the epic muse. Only the dawn of national existence projects those colossal shadows which stalk in the epopea.

Antiquarian poetry is an expedient occupation for national servility. The scrutiny of the leisurely inquirer into the obscurer primæval annals of a country can discover little that avails as a lesson of experience, though much that amuses as a topic of celebration. "To point a moral, or adorn a tale," is all the use that can now be made of the earlier names at which "the world grew pale." Accounts of the adolescence of nations should therefore be contentedly abandoned to the poet: they may inspire the young with an ambitious patriotism, but they cannot teach the mature to guide the commonwealth.

After an introductory sketch of the general plan, which employs twenty-two pages, and recommends an extension of the poetic age to the expulsion of the English by Joan of Arc, the author opens his subject with a recital intitled 'The Gauls.' He collects the intimations which the classical writers have preserved, and the fables which the legendary chronicles of the monks have superadded, concerning the origin of the tribes which first settled in Gaul. An interesting picture of Druidical religion is given; and a Bardic song is introduced, (p. 56.) which well condenses all that is known of the precepts of that superstition.

The second recital illustrates the colonies of the Greeks and Romans in Gaul. The foundation of Marseilles is proposed as the subject of an epic poem; and the scattered notices concerning the Phoceans who fled thither are assembled. The visit of Marius and that of Julius Cæsar to Gaul are pointed out as affording moments adapted for the *bardit*, or chorus-drama;

and an imprecation of the bards against the invading army is given (p. 100.) with much mythological learning, but with a merely oratorical tone of inspiration, and not as in a choral ode of *Klopstock*.

In the third recital, the invasion of Gaul by the Franks is illustrated. Here the Scandinavian mythology is introduced, and described; and fragments of a *bardit* (p. 149.) are given, which contain passages out of costume, and various allusions to classical sites and traditions, of which the *Skalds* could not have heard, or which they would not have named with interest. For instance, these *Skalds*, in the course of their song, (p. 153.) thus address Calpe and Abyla: "Ye mountains which a demi-god could not pass," &c.

As the fourth recital is in our judgment the most interesting, and as it sketches the plan of an epopea on a subject already recommended in a note of Gibbon, we shall be copious in our abstract; generally condensing, but merely translating whenever the text is worthy of being presented entire. This recital, which is called 'the Barbarians,' relates the invasion and expulsion of Attila.

Merovée, the successor of Clodion, reigned in Gaul when Attila, having assassinated his brother Bleda in order to reign alone, and having conquered the east, humbled three emperors, and subjected thirty nations and two hundred cities, marched into France. In the details of his expulsion, the Muse may discover a truly epic subject. She would have to open the dwelling of the Cæsars, and on the throne of the west to display the indolent Valentinian abandoned to the voluptuous luxury of corrupted Rome. 'The saloon, in which his throne stands, offers audience only to the partakers of the banquet; where the flute and the lyre accompany the versés of Propertius and Ovid, where beautiful slaves pluck from the rose its petals to fling into sapphire cups, and pour on them Falernian wine, for the ivy-crowned guests.'

Interrupting his feast, a favourite of the monarch brings word that the ambassadors of many nations are come to request an audience. The Emperor then adjourns to the senate. First appears the ambassador of Marcian, who paints the injuries inflicted by Attila on the east, the desolation of Thrace, the fall of Naissa and Singido, and the consternation of Constantinople; concluding by soliciting aid from the successor of Theodosius.—Then comes the ambassador of the German provinces, who relates the progress of the Huns through Macedonia and Thessaly, the defeat of the Roman legions under Anargis, and concludes by asking succour for the garrisons along the Danube.—To him succeed deputies from Gaul, who announce the approach of Attila

Attila to the Rhine, and that his harbingers are felling the Hercynian forest to construct pontoons for passing their frontier. — A last ambassador then appears. He is the envoy of Attila himself, and dares to bring into the bosom of Rome the dictates of the conqueror. He requires the cession of certain provinces, and demands in behalf of his master the hand of Honoria, and her vast dower. Some senators are disposed to deliver up the daughter of the Cæsars to the barbarian monarch : but Aetius, the commander in chief of the Roman soldiery, opposes this humiliation. His advice prevails ; and he is intrusted with the conduct of the army to be sent against Attila into Gaul.

In a second canto, Attila has crossed the Rhine, and is enumerating his followers. The Vandals, the Quadi, the Marcomanni, and the Samatians are severally depicted. Among his followers, Genseric, the admiral, is distinguished ; who, when he ordered his piratical fleet to undertake the conquest of Sicily, said to the pilot, " Guide me to some nation which God wants to punish."

In a third canto, the Gauls have sent ambassadors to the king of the Huns, to complain of the destruction of Auxerre, Reims, and other cities. The eloquent Salvian, Prospero, Paulinus, and Sidonius Apollinaris, eminent ecclesiastics, (who, while they waved the censer before the altar of Jehovah, sang canticles of their own composition, worthy to charm the hills of Ephraim,) constitute the embassy. Attila, affected by the Gallic Orpheus, relents, and agrees to spare the city of Troyes. The contribution, or ransom, hinted by the historian, of course escapes the epic narrator, who pursues the marvellous.

Paris was in not less danger than Troyes. In a fourth canto, which forms a contrast with the preceding by its soft scenery, the deliverance of Paris by the female Saint Genevieve will be described according to the well-known legend. Saint Genevieve was the most beautiful and pious of the young women who walked on a Sunday into the grove beside the Seine, and there joined in the dance under the porch of the Virgin Mary's church. She collected alms for the needy, provided clothes for the naked, visited the sick, and prayed for the afflicted. These prayers became so efficacious, that she turned aside the course of the army of Attila ; and tradition, says the author, (p. 181.) would justify the following fiction :

" The cherubs of the air, and the golden-haired seraphim, to whom the Creator intrusts the urns of dew to fertilize the earth, were descending to the Seine in order to enamel its bank with flowers, when they beheld the virgin of Nanterre kneeling on an altar of turf beneath the willows. They carried back with them to heaven her prayers mingled with the perfume of flowers, and God was pleased to proclaim
his

his will respecting the immortal city. Immediately the cherubs re-descended from heaven, and pushed down before them clouds of gold and violet, with which they composed a radiant curtain that concealed the walls of Paris; so that Attila, when he marched past, thought that he beheld only a void and uninterrupted horizon."

In the next canto, Aetius appears on the Rhone, and convokes by his heralds the kings of the Franks, of the Visigoths, of the Burgundians, and of the other nations who then inhabited Gaul. He represents to them the danger of their country, and engages them to abjure their separate differences and to confederate against the common enemy. An union against Attila is formed, ratified at a grand feast, and messengers are sent about with the torch of insurrection. Merovée, Theodoric, and Torismond, are among the distinguished allies.

The siege of Orleans undertaken by Attila forms the central incident of the poem. A miracle wrought at the prayer of the Bishop Aignan disappoints the intrusion of the king of the Huns: he learns the approach of the confederates of Aetius; and determines to meet them in Champagne.—A single combat between the giant Widimir and Torismond, and an episode detailing the loves of Childeric and Neliska, are embroidered in this part of the poem.—At length, the first battle is fought, with doubtful success. The death of King Gondicaire forms the most conspicuous loss of the Gauls; and in the eighth canto, his funeral is described, and bards chaunt the death song, which is thus given:

'The chief of warriors has fought; and ravens feast along the path of his sword. The shunner of battles may live long, but he lives despised: happy he who falls by the sword, he dies in the bloom of his praise. In the midst of the battle, when the brave man feels that he has met death, he laughs, and falls. So fell Gondicaire; the Scald shall sing his boldness, and the maids of Geneva * shall weep. The chief of warriors has fought, and ravens feast along the path of his sword.

'When the eyes of the hero are closed, he sees a sparkling star: it guides him to where Heimdal sits, on whose right is the road to Valhalla; on whose left, the deep of Niffeim. How hast thou fallen, Gondicaire? said Heimdal. The hero shewed his wounds. Then Heimdal led him up the shining bridge of gods, and Iduna brought the apples of eternal youth, which heal the wound but do not hide the scar. The portals of Valhalla unfold, and Oden beckons to the banquet of the gods: the heroes of yore clash their weapons in sign of welcome. The chief of warriors has fought; and ravens feast along the path of his sword.'

* Geneva was at that time the capital of the Burgundian kings.

At length, the decisive contest approaches. Attila, uneasy, consults during the preceding night the witches of his country; and they evoke the ghost of Hermanaric, who gives ill-boding answers. The battle of Chalons then begins. Prodiges of valor are performed on both sides: but the troops of Attila give way. He is compelled to fly; and the intelligence which he receives of the total discomfiture of his army induces him to determine on evacuating Gaul.

This event has the neatness, the importance, and the unity, which are requisite to the epopea, and well deserves the care of the poet: the history itself is admirably related in the thirty-fifth chapter of Gibbon. In the fifth recital, which terminates the first volume, is described the settlement of the Franks in the reign of Clovis, which the author considers as adapted for epic use. — The sixth is principally addressed to painters, and describes several situations among the successors of Clovis, which might be suitable for pictures. — The seventh, intitled 'Fredegonda and Brunchaut,' is principally addressed to dramatists, and notices several tragic incidents in which these heroines had a share. — The eighth records the foundation of various monasteries and hermitages in France, as proper subjects for the ballad; which, by embellishing the original legend, can attach interesting reminiscences to the ruins that remain.

The ninth recital is interesting, and deserves the attentive contemplation of the intended epic poet. It narrates the expulsion of the Saracens from France by Charles Martel. Were it not for the victory won by him near Poitiers, says the author, (p. 156.) France, would have passed under the dominion of Islamism; its name, its religion, its laws, and its manners, would have been changed; its cities would have been filled with mosques, and minarets, and bazars, and seraglios; and its provinces would have been the seat of a proud ignorance, such as cowers over the ruins of Palmyra and Memphis.

M. MARCHANGY then proceeds to dispose the historic events in a convenient order for the fabulist, so as to secure a progressive difficulty, an ascending interest, a climax of effort, and a rapid and complete catastrophe. In the army of Charles Martel, he contrives to place Aymon, Doolin of Mayence, Oliver, Duke Naymes, and other popular heroes of the romances of chivalry; and the institution of the earliest order of knighthood, that of *La Genette*, or the bit, in honor of the services rendered by the cavalry at the battle of Poitiers, terminates the poem.

The tenth and concluding chapter describes the state of manners, customs, religion, and literature, under Charles Martel.

In many respects, M. MARCHANGY has just ideas of the principles of epic poetry. He admits, or rather he instinctively perceives, that in the human agency should always reside a sufficient reason for all the moral effort which occurs in the poem; and that the mythological beings may only be allowed to produce those physical accidents which influence the events. — Paris lay too far west for the route of Attila. — How is the epic poet to designate this fact? Celestial agents prepare a radiant evening sky, with which they conceal Paris from his sight; and thus the miracle related preserves the exact truth.

On the other hand, the author does not display a skill of execution equal to his judgment in planning. His style is too uniformly bloated, and fatigues both by its want of variety and its effort. We recommend a rhimed diction, instead of this heroic strutting prose; and a rhimed diction modelled on *Lafontaine*; who, in the *Chêne et Roseau*, attains the highest distinct sublimity, and quickly descends into easy, or picturesque, or dramatic delineations. Homer and Ariosto vary their manner much more than Virgil or Milton, and are the livelier for the change: since the swing of expression, in which they indulge, enables them to bring objects and incidents more dissimilar before the reader.

Milton's Early History of England is full of hints to the poet and the artist, but is not, like this work, drawn up for the purpose of their instruction. Skilful poets are oftener made than born; and this is a good manual of poetic education.

ART. XII. *Les Vrais Principes, &c.*; i. e. The true Principles of Versification unfolded, in the Course of a Comparative Examination of the Italian and French Languages. The Objects of Examination and Comparison are, the Accent, which is the Source of Harmony in Verses; the Nature, the Versification, and the Music of these two Languages. The Analogy which subsists between them is pointed out. Rules are proposed for the Composition of Lyric-verses, and the Means of accelerating the Progress of Music in France. Moreover, by pointing out the Beauties of the French Language, which render it susceptible of all the Charms of Poetry and Music, it is rescued from the Imputations of those who deny it the Graces of Sweetness and Harmony. By ANT. SCOPPA, Sicilian, Extraordinary Functionary in the Imperial University, Author of several Works on Italian and French Literature, Member of the Academy of Arcadians, of that of *Bon Gusto*, of Palermo, and of other Academies. 8vo. pp. 600. Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boffe. Price 14s. sewed.

FROM a member of an academy of good taste, we might reasonably expect a more simple and more neatly-turned title-page, a more luminous arrangement of the subject, and more classical

classical purity of writing, than this extraordinary Functionary has bestowed on the lucubrations before us. He pleads, it is true, the privilege of a foreigner; and it is no disparagement to his literary reputation that his style is, by many degrees, inferior to that of *Fenelon* or *Voltaire*: but M. SCOPPA has not condescended to shew that he was obliged to compose a clumsy volume in a language different from his own.

The preliminary historical sketch of the Origin and Progress of Italian and French Poetry bespeaks both erudition and research: but it is too much abridged, and somewhat too condensed, to excite very lively interest, or to make us deeply in love with the gay science of the Troubadours. A few important circumstances, however, are connected with the rise of modern poetry in the south of Europe, which are sometimes overlooked even by learned inquirers, but to which the present writer is disposed to allow their due degree of weight and influence; such, in particular, is the early homage which the Saracens in Sicily and the Moors in Spain paid to the Muses, and which is conjectured to have first inspired the native inhabitants of these countries with a taste for poetical compositions. The priority of the Provençal poetry to that of Italy is candidly admitted: but we need not be surprized that the preference, in point of chronology, is awarded to the Sicilians, when we are told that they are *born poets*; and that, at this day, the most unlettered of their ploughmen pour forth their unpremeditated strains of love or gaiety 'with an astonishing facility, and with such invariable correctness of accent as never, even slightly, to offend the most delicate ear. Travellers who have had the good fortune to direct their steps, for their instruction, over the happy country of Sicily, must doubtless have admired, among the many wonders which the nature of the soil and climate presents, those groups of the lowest orders of the people who quit their villages, perambulate the streets of Messina and Palermo, and, like mountebanks and adventurers, offer for money to harangue in verse, on any subject prescribed by those who are desirous of admiring the astonishing effects of their imagination.' — These Sicilian itinerants are, it should seem, *bona fide* bardings: at least M. SCOPPA is too patriotic, or too discreet, to insinuate any doubt of their honesty. He treats the vagrant poets of the *main-land*, however, with far less reserve:

'The rage for being reputed an *improvisatore* infects almost all the petty rhymers of Italy; for every body is conscious of a certain faculty of uttering extemporaneous verses, of some kind. This confidence has generated a prodigious number of imposters: bold, but devoid of culture, they lay up in their memory a store of those *lairs improvisus* mentioned by *Molière* in his comedy of the *Précieux*

Précieuses Ridicules; and they collect a magazine of common-places, which they very often borrow or purchase from others, to be used as circumstances may require. They are attended by their civil friends, who are known in Italy by the name of *merry-fellows*; and, embarking on this wretched capital, they roam over Europe for the purpose of deceiving the people, and procuring a subsistence. Some of them, allured by an appearance of success, are eagerly ambitious of publication: the few lines, which they sported in the evening, *eundo crescunt*, and are on the next day expanded into a long poem, while the public are gulled by an assumed title of improvisation.'

In the course of his epitomized record, this learned Sicilian seldom molests his readers with very profound or philosophical reflections. On one occasion, however, he talks of *order and harmony being the physical cause of pleasure*: a position which, without any farther explanation, may be very intelligible to his acute countrymen, (who, it seems, are at no loss to fathom all the depths of polemical theology,) but which, we fear, is not sufficiently obvious to the cold and sluggish apprehensions of the north.

On turning to the more immediate business of the book, we find that it is divided into four parts. The first treats of the accent and pronunciation of the antient languages, of the verses of the vulgar tongues in general, of the division of time in verses and music, of rhythm, &c.;—the second, of the theory of versification, the nature and structure of different kinds of verse, observations on the causes of their perfection and imperfection, of the *cæsura*, elision, rhyme, &c.;—the third, of the different species of poetical compositions, musical dramas, and poetical licences;—and the fourth, of the principal points of comparison between the Italian and French languages, of their composing elements, the objections which have been stated to the use of the surd and mute vowels, the peculiar excellences of the French, the influence of climate, the causes which have retarded the progress of music in France, and the means of its acceleration. The first two parts constitute the subject of the present volume; and the entire publication is a matured and very expanded form of a much smaller essay, which the author published in 1803, under the title of *Traité de la Poésie Italienne, rapportée à la Poésie Française*, which received a flattering reception from some of the most competent judges of its merits.

Part I. opens with definitions and explanations of eight different kinds of accent; namely, the *prosodial*, *oratorical*, *pathetic*, *logical*, *grammatical*, *national*, *musical*, and *typographical*. We submit, however, to the author's consideration, whether the *oratorical*, *pathetic*, *logical*, *national*, and *musical*, do not more properly belong

belong to the provinces of *emphasis* and *intonation*: and, in this case, as he allows that the mere technical marks or symbols of accents are very different from the accents themselves, his chief business will be with the *prosodial* and *grammatical*. Though these have been often confounded, the former properly denotes the quantity of time in a syllable, or the circumstance of its being long or short; and the latter, the stress or impetus of voice that is given to it. In the illustration of his definitions, M. SCOPPA is somewhat tedious: but, in the practical application of his principles to the Italian language, and especially in his explanations of the terms *tronco*, *piano*, and *sdrucchiolo*, he is accurate and distinct. The existence of the grammatical accent in the French, though strangely denied by some writers of name, is shewn to be fully as marked as in the Italian; and we cannot conceive any language whatever to be destitute of it. The author is evidently of the same opinion; since, in the plenitude of his charity, he does not withhold it 'even from the English, that grating language, which in its accent is condemned to imitate a perpetual hissing.'—With its true nature and influence in the French, he seems to be more familiarly acquainted; and, though he details its history and office through many dreary pages, we perfectly concur in the justice, and even in the ingenuity, of most of his observations and reasonings. When *Rousseau*, the Abbé *D'Olivet*, and *Marmontel*, assert that the French language has no accent, they obviously mean, none of a *musical* description, or none that consists in an elevation or depression of the voice: but, in the pronunciation of each word, a stress or impulse of the voice is communicated to one of the syllables, which is said to be *acute*, when all the others are termed *grave*. All the words of the French language, therefore, according to the position of their grammatical or tonic accent, may be divided into the *piani*, *tronchi*, and *sdrucchioli*, of the Italians, the two former being synonymous with *feminine* and *masculine* sounds; and the other might be expressed by *glissans*, or *sliding* words: but the only instances of their occurrence noticed by the author, as *garde-le*, *dites-le*, &c. are at least doubtful, because each of these expressions, notwithstanding the hyphen, ought rather to be estimated as two separate words; and M. SCOPPA was perhaps more correct when, in his first essay, he held the epithet *sdrucchiolo* to be inapplicable to the French language. In the number of its *truncated* or *masculine* words, it greatly surpasses the Italian; a circumstance which contributes to its vivacity and energy: but these qualities are duly tempered by a proper admixture of the *piani*, or *feminine*. The Italian, on the other hand, possesses a great advantage over the French, in the use
of

of its *sliding* words, which produce an agreeable variety in prose, verse, and music. What a pity that we unfortunate English do not manage this *slippery* part of our language with a little more dexterity! for it seems that we 'always dactylize, by employing *sdrucchioli* words on a plan different from that of the Italians, and which, so far from being pleasing to the ear, is extremely offensive to it.'

We have not, however, yet done with the grammatical accent, which the author regards as the fertile source of all harmony in language; and which he shews to have as important functions in the Greek and Latin as in the modern languages of Europe. Father *Sacchi*, whom he frequently quotes with merited respect, had maintained the same position; and, indeed, the direct passages which are adduced from the writings of Cicero and Quintilian remove all shadow of doubt from the matter of *fact*. The *doctrine*, however, especially when coupled with that of *metrical quantity*, which was studied with such scrupulous nicety by the most refined poets of Greece and Rome, is not unattended with difficulty; and M. SCOPPA is intitled to no ordinary degree of credit for the satisfactory and ingenious manner in which he replies to the principal objections. He thus comments on the well-known remark of Cicero, "*in versu quidem theatra tota exclamant si fuit una syllaba aut brevis aut longior*," and others to the same effect:

'Cicero cannot be inconsistent with Horace, nor with himself; and, in fact, we learn from the context that he does not allude to verses recited on the stage, but to such as were sung. Thus we shall find that all the authorities, which the grammarians allege in support of their opinion, rest on false and inconsiderate interpretations *.

'Let us turn, for example, to that passage of Cicero in which he seems to express the astonishing delicacy of ear by which the Romans distinguished the pronunciation of long and short syllables. "*Quid*," says he, "*in verbis junctis? Quam scite insipientem, non insipientem! . . . Inclytus dicimus brevi prima literâ, ianus productâ; inhumanis brevi, infelix longâ . . . Consule veritatem, reprehendet, refer ad aures, probabunt.*" — He is here speaking of compound words; and he shews the sensibility of ear possessed by those who accurately distinguished that, in many cases, the first *i* in such words

* * These clamours of the people in the theatre need not surprize us when we reflect that the same causes would produce the same effects in the French theatres at present. Suppose that, in the opera of *Atis*, in declaiming or singing the verse,

" *Vous vous éveillez si matin,*"

the *a* in *matin* should be pronounced long, (an error which the celebrated *Lulli* very studiously avoided,) what cries and hisses would not accompany that actor who, instead of expressing the *morning*, would suggest the idea of a *mastiff*?

as those quoted, which should have a long quantity, on account of the two consonants that follow, must often be pronounced as short. Then let us apply to the same Father *Sacchi*, and we shall clearly perceive that this sensation, which seems to be so exquisite, is only the natural effect of the grammatical accent in the compound words, each of which has an accent; and that this distinction is perfectly felt by the French in their prosody, as I have already had occasion to observe.

In like manner, he analyzes the passage in St. *Augustine's* work on music, relative to the first verse of Virgil's *Æneid*; and he shews that, in the fictitious line,

“ *Armā, rēgēmquē dīcō, Rōdī quī nōvīs āb āquīs,*”

the harmony is preserved, while the quantity, though correct, is in direct violation of the rules for hexameters.

‘ As often as we declaim Latin verses, we repeat St. *Augustine's* experiment. Like him, we are ignorant of the syllabic quantity, and we know that such or such syllable is long or short, not because we really feel it to be so, but because we honestly believe that it formerly was so. We are constantly mistaking the pronunciation of this pretended metrical quantity, and yet the verses are not less harmonious.

‘ The nature of the pronunciation of the antient languages with regard to accents being reduced to the terms which we have explained, I have only to reply to the last difficulty which the grammarians are intitled to propose to me concerning the use of the prosodial quantity. If, according to the system of Father *Sacchi*, the theory of the Greek and Latin versification was founded only on the value of the grammatical accent, what end could be served by that multitude of longs and shorts, so celebrated in antiquity, so uniform, so constant, and so generally recognized?

‘ This difficulty is not, strictly speaking, an objection to the system proposed, but rather a call for an explanation of the use which the antients could make of their prosodial quantity. The Romans were, in fact, very vain and jealous of it; because, agreeably to their character, they set a high value on their language, and vaunted and improved all its possible properties, being ambitious of obtaining a distinguished name by the culture of the arts, and by their wisdom as well as their power.

‘ With the view to a direct solution of the proposed difficulty, it will, I should imagine, be proper to give some idea of the origin of the prosodial quantity; which, like the grammatical accent, is inherent in the genius of every language. From such an obvious explanation, we may divine the motives which prompted the antients to institute the rules of the metrical art, that enhanced the dignity, harmony, and beauty of their verses.

‘ Whether we consult reason, or appeal merely to the testimony of the ear, it is certain that, in every language, more time is required for the pronunciation of two vowels than of one, and more for the pronunciation of a vowel followed by two consonants than for the pronunciation of that which is followed by only one. The greater or less sonorousness of the letters requires more or less time to pronounce them. On this

this principle, the antients, guided by reason and delicacy of ear, formed the rule of prosody, agreeably to which an uniformity of pronunciation has been established among all nations *. Hence are derived these very old canons :

" *Vocalis longa est si consona bina sequantur.*"

" *Vocalem breviant alia subeunte Latini.*"

" *Diphthongus longa est in Græcis atque Latinis,*" &c.

* Each rule, as I have just observed, is grounded on its competent reasons. Thus, a vowel which is followed by two consonants, one of which is mute and the other liquid, (that is to say, sliding,) is short, or common :

" *Contrahit orator, variantque in carmine vates,
Si mutam liquidamque simul brevis una præbit.*"

* The reason is, that, by the combination of these two consonants, one of which is sliding, the voice slides in effect, and seems to make only a single impression †.

† On the same principle, our Italian and French languages (without troubling myself about others,) have also their quantity, that is to say, their short and long syllables. The Abbé D'Olivet has deserved well of French literature, for having fixed its rules; which, with much sagacity, he derives from nature herself, and from the genius of his language: but the Italians have bestowed less attention on this subject, contenting themselves with those longs and shorts which originate in the grammatical accent, a fertile and inexhaustible source of as many beauties as the Greek and Latin languages have been enabled to derive from it.

This branch of the inquiry is prosecuted at still greater length: but we must hasten to the following chapter, treating of the versification of the *vulgar* languages, by which are here understood the Italian, French, and Spanish. The last mentioned, indeed, is never separately noticed: but we are dis-

* This assertion is too wide and sweeping. *Rev.*

† In French, the principal rule of the two consonants seems not to take place, because, according to the prosody of that language, the vowel is short. This is owing to the genius of the language, which humours and takes the form of that vivacity which is natural to the French.

"In France," says M. Durand, "the vowels that are followed by two consonants cannot be strictly qualified as long, because our organs, having to surmount the opposition of their consonants, may be said to imitate the generous steed which clears the ditch or the barrier in his way, with an impetuosity sufficient to carry him over in gallant style: so we pronounce *arbre, marbre, force, pâme, nouvelle, tendu, belle,* &c."

"The example of the mute and liquid, which do or may render short the vowel that precedes them, will in some measure reconcile us to what Durand says with respect to the French pronunciation."

timely reminded that the same series of observations applies to all the three.

An Italian verse is substantially defined to be an assemblage of a determinate number of syllables and of accents, so distributed as sensibly and easily to affect the ear with an agreeable sensation. If either the number of syllables or the position of the essential accent be altered, the peculiar harmony of the verse is lost; a convincing proof that its effect depends on the combination of both. In some cases, where both the requisite number of syllables and the position of the essential accent are observed, the line may nevertheless be scarcely distinguishable from prose: but this anomaly arises from some accidental close adherence of the sense of two contiguous words, which occasions their being recited without a sufficient stress or pause of the voice on the proper place, as in

“ *E il sole avèa desti i mortali all' op'ra,*”

where the first essential accent is on *avèa*: but this auxiliary is so intimately connected with *desti*, that we do not readily separate them in pronunciation. If, however, without regard to the meaning, we pause between them, the mere harmony of the verse is restored. With regard to any defect, either in the number of syllables or in the distribution of the accents, the ear is justly represented as the judge from whose tribunal no appeal can be made; and the wonderful susceptibility of this organ, in perceiving the requisite harmony, or the want of it, is traced to the pleasure which we are constituted to receive from the alternation of different sounds, within regulated limits. The structure of French versification is shewn to depend on the same principles; and the whole doctrine of the *cæsura* may be said to regard only the adjustment of the essential accentuation. Although no examples of the sliding or *sdrucchioli* verses occur in French, the feminine and masculine exactly correspond to the *piani* and *tronchi*. The greater proportion of the latter in the French, and the exclusion of the *sdrucchioli*, (verses, not words,) are even maintained to be more friendly to harmony than the Italian models; and, in so far as the general cast of the verse is concerned, this opinion is susceptible of demonstration: but, in the minor details of the structure of words, in a happy combination of letters; and in mellowness and vocality of pronunciation, M. SCOPPA will not, we presume, be disposed to yield the palm to any *transmontane* tongue or dialect whatever.

A whole chapter is allotted to the division of time in verses, which is ably traced to the same principle that prompts the beating of time in music: but this, and most of the leading

views contained in the chapter, particularly the definition of a poetical foot, of metre, and of rhythm, are avowedly borrowed from *Sacchi*; to whom *Marmontel* appears to have been under great obligations, though he dispenses with quoting his name. Here, as on several other occasions, M. SCOPPA's principal merit seems to consist in stating and answering objections: but we cannot, without greatly infringing our boundaries, pretend to follow him through all his illustrations; and, indeed, we are less anxious to do this, when we perceive that his sentiments have been anticipated by some of the most eminent of his precursors.

In Part ii., which treats of the theory of versification, he states the extreme dimensions that can be assigned to any verse. The *minimum*, it is observed, cannot be less than a measure of three feet; because, from the very definition of a verse, it ought to be so constructed as easily and sensibly to produce its impression on the ear; otherwise, it would be only prose; or, *vice versa*, all prose, and every word of it would be verse. Each verse is only a portion of rhythm; and the rhythm is only a continuous and indefinite series of similar feet: but one foot cannot be a series, and consequently cannot constitute a verse. Two similar feet, placed together, will form a metre, and the beginning of a series: but the beginning is not the series itself; so that the union of two feet is not a verse. Besides, the junction of two feet forms a metre: but a metre, according to the definition of the best professors of the art, is not a rhythm; and therefore, also, two feet do not make a verse. If to two similar a third of the same nature be added, the idea of series is recognized in that of continuation, and the existence of verse is determined. Verses, properly so called, then, cannot have fewer than three feet; and any metrical specimens of shorter dimensions are strictly to be regarded as only the commencements or elements of verse. Again, a verse of three feet requires the essential accent only on the third, because that absolutely determines the existence of the verse. The harmony of a verse, moreover, consists in the relation of one accent to another, or of one time to another: but one foot has only one accent; consequently, it possesses no relation; consequently, no harmony; and, consequently, it is not a verse. It may, however, be said that two similar feet produce accordance, harmony, and order.

Let us reflect, then, on what I have just advanced relative to the nature of series; for I maintain that they do not constitute an order, but rather the beginning of the order; they complete a metre, which, in poetry, should be considered as the first element of harmony. Attend to the regular movement of the steps of soldiers, when at drill—*one two, one two, one two, one two, one two, &c.*: here we have an order in the movement, which is precisely an example of rhythm. Can it be supposed that, in the first two steps, *one two,*

which are only a *battuta*, (beating,) an order can be perceived? certainly not: but, if the same *battuta* be repeated, *one two, one two*, it is obvious that the ear, when comparing them together, discovers in them a beginning of order, which is manifested in the passage from the first to the second. If we pass on to the third, *one two, one two, one two*, here are order, series, rhythm, — the decided formation, in short, of the musical verse. It requires, then, three feet to determine the genuine character of a verse.

‘ In the same manner I proceed to shew what is the *maximum* of a verse. I have stated that it cannot exceed the number of five feet: for, in short, we must assign a term, fixed by the ear, in order to constitute in a verse an individual whole. Now, in the idea of the whole, we cannot reckon more than five feet. For the sake of argument, however, let us suppose a verse of six feet: as it may be divided into two equal parts, each of which is of three feet; and, as three feet form a verse, it is evident that this pretended compound of six feet is only the union of two verses. These two verses, whether we consider them as united or as detached from each other, will neither acquire nor lose any of their natural prerogatives. The ear will always receive from them the same harmony.

‘ But the extent of a verse which is included in the number of five feet presents the image of a perfect whole. If separated into two, the largest portion will be of three feet, which are a verse, while the smallest will be of two feet, which make only a metre; and, since a metre, of itself, is not a verse, it must be joined with the largest portion, in alliance with which it effects that harmonious resonance of which it is deprived. It gives this harmony in fact; and the ear is the judge of it; for though only a metre in itself, yet, when united to the other portion, it contributes to form a part of that rhythm which the ear has already begun to relish with pleasure. Thus, of these two parts is naturally formed an entire and rationally constructed whole.’

An apparently obvious objection to the preceding doctrine arises from the hexameter and iambic verses of the antients, and the Alexandrine of the French, which are held to consist of *six* feet. M. SCOPPA observes, in reply, that the Greek and Latin iambics correspond exactly to the Italian *sdrucchioli*, and consist of only five feet, with two short superfluous syllables at the end; that the true measure of the Latin hexameter is *anapestic*, really consisting of five feet, the first and the last syllable being superfluous to the rhythm, and hence denominated by the antients *catalectic*; and that the Alexandrine, of six iambic feet, is merely a compound of two verses, of three feet each, separated by a cæsure.

As the poetical feet, which enter into the composition of Italian and French verse, are four in number, (namely, the *trocheus*, *iambus*, *dactylus*, and *anapestus*,) four species of verse naturally arise out of them, and each containing three varieties, according as they consist of three, four, or five, of their respective

spective feet. This scheme, which is at once simple and convenient, is particularly exemplified and illustrated in the review of the different sorts of verses, both Italian and French; and to this review are subjoined many excellent critical observations on the French Alexandrines, with an analytical reduction of Italian, French, and Latin verses, to the same standards. From the greater prevalence of iambic and anapestic words in the French, the author infers that this language is really more adapted than the Italian to the purposes of musical harmony; and that French poetry and music might be greatly improved, if poets and musicians were always capable of appreciating such advantages, and of turning them to practical account.

The common *hendecasyllabic* verse of the Italians, when compared with the *heroic*, or *hexameter* of the Greeks and Latins, is found not to yield to it in sweetness, force, or gravity; qualities which result from the extent and divisibility of the verse, and the nature of its rhythm. Now, the extent of both is the same, namely, five feet; and, with regard to the other two properties, the superiority is fairly awarded to the moderns, because the hendecasyllabic verse admits of greater variety in placing the pause, and its iambic rhythm is preferable to the anapestic which characterizes the hexameter. Yet few Italian or French poets have succeeded in imitating the hexameter and pentameter models of antiquity; and their failure is here ascribed to two causes, viz. 1st, a greater reverence for scholastic rules than for the dictates of an unprejudiced ear, and, 2dly, the different genius of the dead and the living languages, the latter requiring their full complement of articles and other minute parts of speech. 'The articles, if I mistake not,' (says the author,) 'often prevent literal translations of Latin verses that retain the harmony of the original. For example, I translate into Italian the following verse, with its harmony:

"*At regina gravi jamdudum saucia curâ :*"

'*Ma regina grave nel petto lacera cura :*

but, owing to the want of articles, this Italian verse, which preserves the same accents, the same number of syllables, and almost the same words as the Latin, is wholly destitute of sense and meaning.' — That the *harmony* of the Latin hexameter, however, is capable of being perfectly transfused into the Italian, is obvious from the following specimens :

"*Regia solis erat sublimibus alta columnis :*"

'*Regia sole n'era su' limiti d'alte colonne.'*

"*Titire, tu patula recubans sub tegmine fagi :*"

'*Titiro, tu pavido turbine sul talamo fago.'*

With respect to pentameters, even the Sicilian *improvisatori* can imitate them with the greatest ease.

Many pages are occupied with judicious and useful observations on the effect and proper management of the *cæsura*, elision, rhyme, blank verse, lines imitative of sounds, &c.: but we must forbear to enter into a more prolonged analysis of this first volume:—which, though in some respects inelegant and cumbersome, bespeaks much candour, and the result of much laborious study; and which we may safely recommend to the attentive consideration of all those who are desirous of cultivating an intimate acquaintance with the genius and niceties of Italian and French versification.

ART. XIII. *Archives des Découvertes, &c.; i.e. Archives of Discoveries and New Inventions, made in the Sciences, Arts, and Manufactures, both in France and in foreign Countries, during the Years 1810 and 1811; with a brief Indication of the principal Productions of native French Industry, Notices respecting the Prizes proposed or decreed by different Literary Societies, French and Foreign, for the Encouragement of the Sciences and of the Arts; and the List of Certificates of Invention granted by the Government during the same Years. 8vo. Paris.—Imported by De Boffe. Price 12s. sewed, each.*

THE second volume of this publication was announced in the Appendix to our lxivth Vol. N. S. p. 524.; and we have now to report its continuation. For the most part, we think that all the observations which we before offered apply in the present instance, since these volumes seem to possess the same merits and the same defects which were displayed in the former. The merits, which considerably overbalance the defects, are those of clearness, accuracy, and brevity; while, on the contrary, we meet with some examples of want of method, of improper arrangement, of a disproportionate attention to the different subjects, and of an undue partiality to the productions of the French. As the arrangement of the two volumes is very nearly the same, we shall consider them in conjunction, and briefly go through the different sections; pointing out those articles which are the most new and interesting to us, or such as seem to lead to the most important conclusions.

We begin with Natural History; and the first article consists of an abstract from a valuable paper, by *Delaroché*, on the Cause by which the Cooling of Animals is effected at high Temperatures. The conclusion derived by the author is this: ‘The development of cold, which is manifested in animals exposed to great heat, is the result of the evaporation of the matter of transpiration; which, in proportion to the increase of the action of
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the exhalent system, is as much more considerable as the external temperature is elevated. It is at the same time the result of physical and of vital causes.'—An account is given of a paper by *Cuvier* on the Swimming-bladder of Fishes; in which he relates the opinions of those who have treated of this subject, and seems to doubt whether the proper use of this organ has yet been discovered.—The description follows of a variety of new animals and plants, chiefly taken from the French naturalists; and the analysis of several new minerals, (among which are introduced Dr. Thomson's sodalite and allanite,) and mineral waters.—In the botanical department, the labours of our countrywoman, Mrs. Ibbetson, are noticed with due applause.—A sketch is added of an apparently interesting paper by *Hauy*, on the Electricity of Minerals; in which this ingenious philosopher seems not only to have carried his observations much beyond his predecessors, but to have deduced from them some curious and important consequences with respect to the classification and diagnosis of minerals.

In the department of Natural Philosophy, among other topics of less importance, we have some observations by *Cotte*, so well known for his laborious application to the science of meteorology, on the appearance and disappearance of the *Aurora Borealis*; by which he renders it probable that this phenomenon occurs more or less frequently during alternate periods of a certain number of years: at present, it is much less frequently visible than it was about twenty years ago.—We have also an abstract of a paper by *Volta* on the Formation of Hail, of papers by *Biot* on the Refraction of Light, and by *Dessaignes* on the Phosphorescence produced in Bodies by the Compression of their Particles. The experiments of the latter induce him to conclude that even water may become luminous by compression; and that it is not an electrical effect, but that it depends on the particles of the water being brought nearer together, by which the light is, as it were, squeezed from between them, which is the case with caloric in different instances. The disengagement of light is supposed to be wholly independent of combustion.—*Prevost* has been lately occupied in some experiments on the Transmission of Heat across Water. He supposes that, when a film of water is become saturated with heat, it can transmit a certain quantity through its substance: but this operation appears to take place in a slight degree, and only with minute quantities of the fluid.—The English productions which are noticed are Mr. Burney's Observations on Floating Bodies, Kirwan's Anemometer and Wollaston's Goniometer, Sir H. Englefield's Portable Barometer, the Electric Column of Mr. Deluc, the Experiments on Electricity and Galvanism

vanism by Davy, Children, Cuthbertson, and Singer, and Professor Leslie's Discoveries on the Production of Artificial Cold.

Under the head of Chemistry, we have a rather full account of the discoveries and hypotheses of Sir H. Davy, and of the analogous researches of MM. *Gay-Lussac* and *Thenard*: these subjects are treated in a perspicuous manner, and on the whole with great impartiality. — Also, an abstract of a judicious paper by *Delam  therie* on Chemical Affinity; of *Gay-Lussac's* Experiments on Triple-Salts; of those of *Stromeyer* on the New Metal from Silex; of *Vauquelin's* Comparative Experiments on Gum, Common Sugar, and the Sugar of Milk; and on the Proportions of Sulphuric Acid in its different Mixtures with Water. Then follow papers by *Saussure* on the Composition of Olifient Gas, from which we learn that he agrees very nearly with Dr. Thomson; by *Boullay* on the Formation of an Ether from Arsenical Acid; and by *Berard* on the Alkaline Oxalates and Super-oxalates, in which some of the conclusions of Dr. Thomson are controverted, and the facts are rendered more agreeable to the hypothesis of *Berthollet*. These compose some of the most important articles that are contained under the class of Chemistry, in which we cannot but remark the very little share that is assigned to our countrymen. Sir H. Davy is the only English chemist whose labours during the years 1810 and 1811 are deemed worthy of being recorded.

The departments of Medicine and Surgery are barren of information; a defect which we conceive must be, in part at least, imputed to the scarcity of medical writers in France. In some branches of knowledge, it would not be easy to decide to which of the two rival nations the palm of superiority should be decreed: but in medicine there can be no doubt that the judgment would rest in favour of England. Every fact that we have been able to ascertain on this point leads us to that conclusion, and the volumes now before us, as far as their evidence is of any weight, confirm the opinion. Of the articles mentioned in this section, very few belong to practical medicine or surgery; some refer to physiology, and some to pharmacy, which seem to be interesting. In the latter department, we observe that the active genius of the French has been called forth, by the circumstances of the times, to endeavour to find a substitute for Peruvian bark. One writer recommends very strongly the leaves of the olive tree; another, unroasted coffee; a third, the bark of the tulip tree; and a fourth, the rind of the pomegranate. We may with confidence predict that these will be found very imperfect substitutes; the willow-bark is probably much superior to any of them, but we presume that its virtues are not known in France. — In the section on Phar-

macy, is an account of the analysis of several plants that belong to the *Materia Medica*, which had not before been examined; the root of the liquorice, the *gratiola*, *nux vomica*, colombo, oppoponax, *assa fœtida*, and some others:—pharmaceutical chemistry has been cultivated in France with much assiduity.

Hydraulic Architecture and Navigation form one of the sections, and we find in it several inventions or proposals for improvements: but we apprehend that they are rather to be considered as ingenious, than as likely to be of any substantial advantage. We were amused with an account of an apparatus called a Submarine Nautilus, which is described at full length, and which is said to have been approved by some of the learned members of the Institute. This Nautilus is a vessel which, as its name imports, is to sail below the surface of the water, and is to be capable of containing a considerable number of persons. It appears to be of an oval form, and divided into three apartments; the centre for the reception of the passengers, and the two ends to contain the apparatus for raising or sinking the machine, and for supplying a change of air. A particular account is given of the method employed for directing the machine, and for causing it to rise or sink; of the feasibility of which we can scarcely form an opinion. In all such contrivances, the greatest difficulty is to afford a supply of respirable air, and in this respect the Nautilus is evidently defective. After an account of two mechanical contrivances, one of which is a system of flexible tubes, intended to reach to the surface of the water, the author adds, ‘the navigators provide for the imperious necessity of breathing by an ample stock of compressed oxygen, which is kept in reserve, and which they use with the economy imposed on them by the interest of their own preservation.’ We have seldom seen a more complete instance of scientific trifling.

We shall conclude this notice by some account of the Manufacture of Sugar in France. It appears that the French are still extremely assiduous in their endeavours to procure this substance from their indigenous plants; and although it is highly improbable that their exertions will ever succeed so far as to produce any thing which can become a proper substitute for the juice of the cane, yet it is not uninteresting to observe the result of their attempts. These volumes contain an account of many experiments, some on the beet-root, others on the maple-juice, and on honey, but chiefly on the syrup of grapes. An account is given of the proportional quantities, as well as the peculiar qualities, of the sugar that can be procured from these different sources; with a detail of a set of experiments performed by *Bertbollet*, *Chaptal*, *Parmentier*, *Vauquelin*, and *Proust*,

on

on the Comparative Virtues of the Sugar from Grapes and from the Cane. This learned body proceeded to taste creams, ices, marmalades, &c. &c. made with the two kinds of sugar, and to report the effects produced on their palates; and this report, it seems, was regarded as of sufficient importance to be inserted in the *Moniteur*. In connection with the same subject, we may add that attempts are now making to cultivate cotton in the southern parts of Italy; and, as far as the climate is concerned, we think that they may have some degree of success: but we have no idea of any thing being accomplished in this respect which can at all diminish the importance of the foreign supply of the article.

ART. XIV. *La Chine en Miniature*, &c.; i. e. China in Miniature, &c. By M. BRETON. 12mo. Vols. V. and VI. Paris, 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 12s. sewed.

PICTURESQUE geography is in high vogue in France; and indeed more is learnt in a few minutes concerning the dress of a people, the appearance of their edifices, and the prevailing character of their occupations, by means of adapted engravings, than could be acquired in as many hours from letter-press. A book of plates on the Manners of the Othomans was reviewed in our lxxth Vol. p. 542.; it was an imitation of the first four volumes of the present work, which were noticed in the Appendix to Vol. lxxviii. p. 538. Their great success has tempted the editor again to look through his stock of materials, and to select this supplement from the uncopied drawings and the omitted remarks. The sweepings of a literary closet are seldom equal to the picked papers: but, on this occasion, the neglected paintings had been precisely those which were too large and complex to be reduced easily by the engraver. They are now given in folded prints; and the text of M. *Nepveu*, being every where accommodated to the designs, and reposing on a daily increasing familiarity with the travels of Macartney, Huttner, Barrow, and Guignes, is not less instructive or elucidatory than before.

In the fifth volume are thirteen plates. The first three represent the manner in which the heir-apparent of the empire of China appears in public. Two running footmen with long whips precede to disperse the croud; and a cavalcade of twenty-four horsemen, with long pig-tails, surrounds the horse, or palankin, or vehicle of the prince. Plate 4. represents the camel which carries the tent of the Emperor. Plate 5. a bonzess with her crown shaven. Plate 6. a fruit-girl. Plates 7. and 8. walking public cooks. This profes-
sion

sion deserves notice, because it is applicable in every large town. A man carries with him, suspended like two milk-pails, a brazier containing a charcoal fire, and a larder of stakes, soups, bread, and other victuals of ready sale. He stops in a public walk, or under the porch of a temple, or wherever he can find a bench, and dishes out a comfortable dinner in the open air. Plate 9. is a pigeon-merchant. Plate 10. contains various figures in mourning. Plate 11. Mandarins. Plates 12. and 13. Tatars. At p. 79. the author tells a marvellous story :

‘ To the west of Ha-Mi are entire fields of water-melons. When they are ripe, and ready to gather, the people sent for that purpose are forbidden to speak ; because, if any one by mistake talks loud, the ripe melons begin to crack and burst.’

This sensibility to sound, this auditory faculty of the melon, is an observation peculiar to Chinese natural history.

In the sixth volume, the plates 14. and 15. exhibit a progress of Cong-Tshu ; they are prolongations of one another, each including half the original Chinese picture, which is a companion to the plates 1. and 2. In plate 16. the suite of the princess is given. No. 17. represents a Thespian car, a travelling theatre of the Chinese. The waggon expands into a stage, and contains the warehouse of masquerade ; the spectators assemble in a pit of clay, strewn with rushes. The dramas have all the indecency and improbability of those of Aristophanes. A Chinese author says :

‘ Plays are fire-works of the wit, to be viewed only during the night of leisure. They degrade and dirty those who let them off ; they fatigue the delicate eyes of the sage ; they supply dangerous ruminations to idleness ; they stain the women and children who approach too often and too near ; they make a smoke and a stink more lasting than the gaiety of their light ; they dazzle but to mislead ; and they often occasion ruinous conflagrations.’

Some literary anecdotes occur in this chapter. During the year 1780, a plan was laid before Kien-Long for reprinting a complete collection of the Chinese writers ; it was calculated at six hundred thousand volumes : but a Chinese volume is what we should call a pamphlet. Their drama forms a very minute proportion of this compilation. The French stereotype drama (the plays in common demand) amounts to twenty-seven volumes, octavo. Among the works reprinted at the expence of the state, was a book of Father Ricci the Jesuit, intitled *A true Idea of God*. When a work is published which the government disapproves, death is sometimes inflicted, of which an instance is cited. — Plate 18. exhibits a religious procession of the Buddhists. 19. A charcoal waggon : the form of its wheel deserves notice, being of cheaper construction than the spoke-

spoke-wheel. The Chinese light their coal-fires with charcoal, by which means they escape the incipient smook. They do not make their tinder of rags, which they sell to the paper-maker, but of a sort of white grass, which they beat with a mallet, and steep in salt-petre; their matches are made of hemp-stalks. 20. A fuel-porter. 21. Toy-men. The liu-li, a flexible sort of glass, is described in this chapter. 22. A seller of aniseed comfits. 23. A dog-merchant. 24. Chinese Highlanders. 25. Moslems. 26. Method of building in China. 27. Plan of a Chinese house. 28. Method of constructing a tower in China; such prospect-towers are called *Ta* in Chinese.

These volumes contain many inedited portions of the correspondence of Father *Amiot*, and other French missionaries, with the minister of the interior, *M. Bertin*, and are valuable for communications respecting the arts and manufactures of the Chinese, to which he had especially directed their attention.

ART. XV. *Anatomie du Gladiateur combattant*, &c.; i. e. The Anatomy of the Fighting Gladiator, adapted to the Fine Arts; or a Treatise on the Bones, Muscles, Mechanism of the Motions, Proportions, and Characters of the Human Body. Illustrated by 22 Plates. By JOHN-GALBERT SALVAGE, Physician of the Faculty of Montpellier. Imperial Folio. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 8l. in Boards.

WE here announce not only a very splendid and very useful work, but one which is new in its design, and highly worthy of imitation. It is of little importance to inquire whether the statue now called the Fighting Gladiator was so termed by the ancients, or whether it be not a representation of Chabrias or Alcibiades: all agree that it is an exquisite piece of sculpture, constituting in itself a study for the modern artist. M. SALVAGE is so enraptured with his subject that he dedicates this superb volume 'To the Manes of Agasias, the Son of Dositheus, Citizen of Ephesus, the Sculptor of this Statue;' apostrophizing him in the following strain, which may suit the meridian of France, but is too extravagant for us cold-blooded islanders:

'*Agasias!* awake, quit the unknown tomb where thou reposest, to preside over our labours, to instruct us in the secrets of thy art, and to trace the route which we ought to follow! Divine statuary, aid our views, enlighten us with the torch of thy genius, and if I have so completely studied thy grand *chef d'œuvre* as to have been able to analyze its action and to penetrate its mysterious beauty, if my painful and persevering efforts have any merit in thy sight, deign to accept of my homage! May the work which I this day consecrate to thee render me worthy of being in future the disciple of such a master!'

To

To this high-flown dedication, the Manes of Agasias will make no reply : but the commendation of artists of the present day will compensate to M. SALVAGE for the silence of the antient statuary. The plates are very accurately and finely executed; and the pains which have been taken to shew the bones and muscles, within the exterior outline of the statue, cannot fail to assist the young artist in obtaining that knowledge of the human figure which is essential to excellence in his profession. We are sorry that we can do no more with this very capital work than merely announce its object, and recommend it by a general eulogium, as calculated to afford the greatest utility and highest gratification to those for whom it is designed. Besides the plates of the Gladiator, are four displaying the head of the Apollo Belvidere, and others. A delineation of the whole of the Apollo, similarly executed, would be a desirable undertaking.

ART. XVI. *Grandes Vues Pittoresques, &c. ; i.e.* Large Picturesque Views of the principal Sites and Monuments of Greece and Sicily, and also of the Seven Hills of Rome; designed and etched by MM. CASSAS and BENCE, with an Explanation of the Monuments by M. C. P. LANDON. Imperial Folio. Paris. 1813. Imported by De Boffe. Price 7l. 7s. Boards.

M. CASSAS is well known for his superb and entertaining picturesque tour in Istria and Dalmatia, and for his still more expensive tour in Syria, Phœnicia, Palestine, and Lower Egypt. The present work is larger with respect to the size of the plates than either of the foregoing, but it is not executed with equal elegance. The views are little more than sketches boldly etched; and though they possess the merit of general fidelity, the artist does not appear to have selected his points of view with judgment: a circumstance which may considerably lessen the value of a drawing, by rendering the representation so confused that the spot can scarcely be recognized by those who have visited it. These outline-engravings, which are indeed on a magnificent scale*, represent Athens and the surrounding Country, — the Portico and Caryatides of the Temple of Pandrosus, at Athens, — the Monument of Philopappus, — the Façade of the Great Temple of Concord, at Agrigentum, — a Side View of the same, — the Remains of the Temple of Juno-Lacinia, at Agrigentum, — a Portion of the same Ruins, — Ruins of the Temple at Taorminium, — Remains of the Theatre at Syracuse, — and a View of one of the quarries of Syracuse, called Dionysius's Ear. These are all the views taken in Greece and Sicily. In the other department

* One of them measures nearly eight feet in length.

544 *Neergaard's Picturesque Tour in the North of Italy.*

of the work, intitled the Picturesque Itinerary of Rome, we have six plates exhibiting the seven hills of Rome, with the various buildings which decorate them.

This series of plates, we are told, will make a proper supplement to the plan of *Noli*, and to the large view of Rome by *Vasi*. A description of the engravings forms the only letter-press part of the volume.

ART. XVII. *Voyage Pittoresque du Nord de L'Italie, &c. ; i. c.*

A Picturesque Tour in the North of Italy. By T. C. BRUNN-NEERGAARD, Gentleman of the Chamber to the King of Denmark, Member of several learned Societies, &c.—The Designs by *Naudet*; the Engravings by *Debricourt*, Associate of the *ci-devant* Royal Academy of Painting. Folio. 1st Livraison. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 18s.

PERSUADED that a work of this kind, illustrative of the picturesque beauties of the north of Italy, was much wanted, M. NEERGAARD, accompanied by M. *Naudet*, twice explored that district; the latter taking a variety of designs, out of which the former selected those that were best calculated to afford a correct idea of the characteristic features of the country. Though architecture as a science is not made the chief object of this work, the architect is apprized that he will often find matter in it that will gratify his curiosity; since buildings that are interesting as monuments of history, viz. convents, palaces, castles, and ruins, being also picturesque objects, generally find a place in these sketches. M. NEERGAARD commences his excursion by the road over the Simplon, and visits Lake Maggiore and its enchanting isles: hence he passes to Milan, and to the little lake of Como; which, though not so well known as the great lake, is equally picturesque. Pavia, Placentia, Parma, Bergamo, the lake Garda, and the little rivers which run by Verona and Vicenza, are next explored. Padua and Venice also fall under observation.

It is remarked that the isles which cover the Lagunes present a most striking spectacle even to experienced tourists; for here are to be found buildings erected in a style worthy of the Romans. Travelling through a country presenting landscapes of the most striking character, M. NEERGAARD was happy in having for his companion such an artist as M. *Naudet*; and he was equally fortunate in finding M. *Debricourt* for an engraver, who has executed the plates in a forcible and spirited style, effecting much with little effort. The work is intended to form sixteen or seventeen numbers, to be published monthly. Six *aqua-tinta* plates, besides letter-press, are given in each number.

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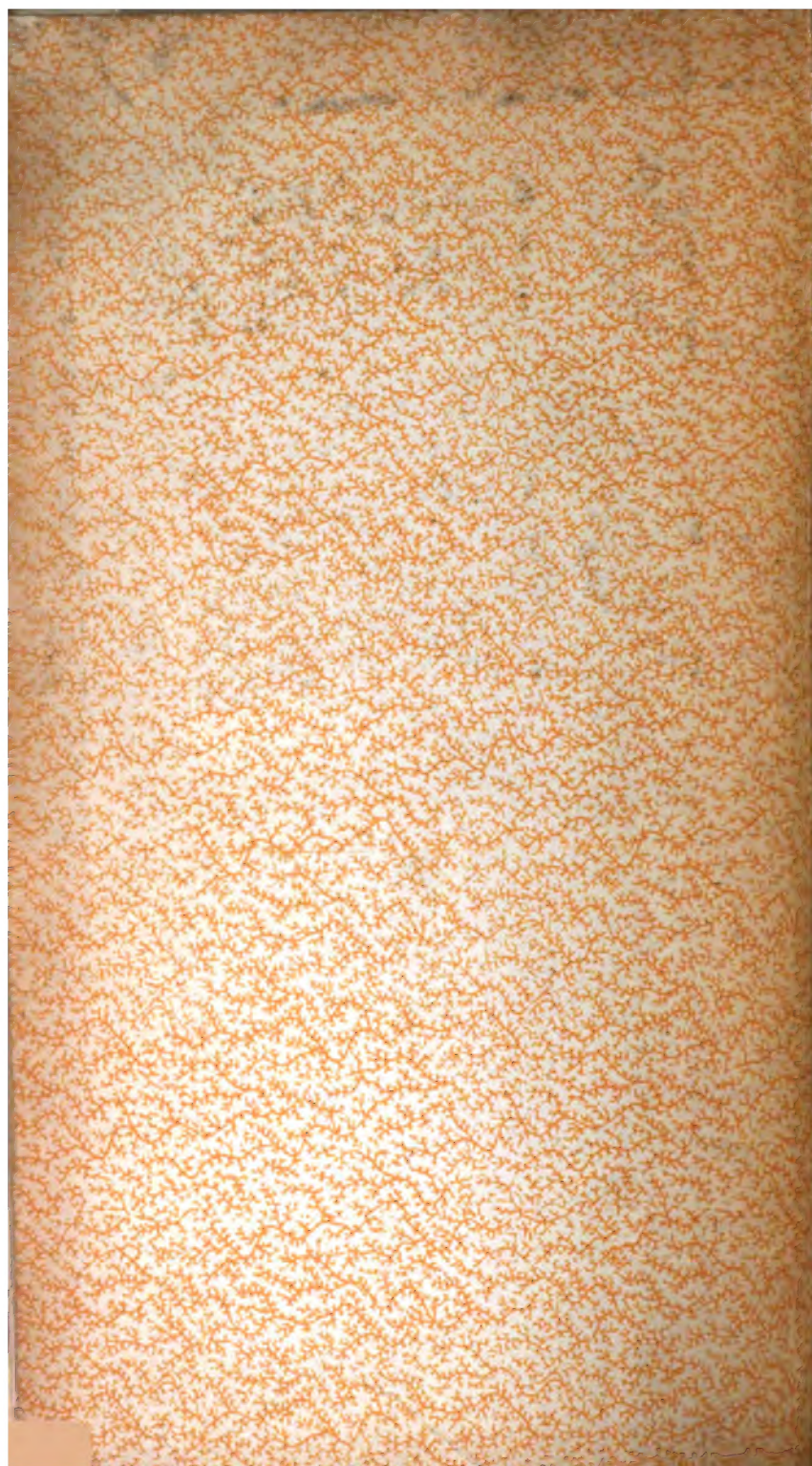
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